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A DESCRIPTION

OF

ALL THE PARTS OF THE WORLD,

ON A NEW PLAN,

ACCORDING TO THE GREAT NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE GLOBE;

ACCOMPANIED WITH

Analytical, Synoptical, and Elementary Tables.

BY M. MALTE-BRUN.

IMPROVED BY THE ADDITION OF THE MOST RECENT INFORMATION, DERIVED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.

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CONTENTS OF VOL. VIII.

BOOK CXXXVII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Physical Geography of the Spanish peninsula. History of the ancient people that inhabited Spain and Portugal. Mussulman conquest.

	Page
Extent and Surface,	1
Mountains—Pyrenees—Rocks,	2
Iberian Range—Fossil bones—Carpetano-Vettonic range,	3
Lusitanian range—Marianic range,	4
Rocks—Cuneick range—Betic range,	5
Rocks—Parameras,	6
Basins—Basin of the Tagus,	7
Basin of the Anas—Duero,	8
Basin of Guadalquiver,	9
Basin of the Ebro,	10
Other Basins—Basin of the Segura—Mino,	11
Central region,	12
Betic region—Iberian region,	13
Lusitanian, Gallician, and Cantabrian,	14
Balearic Islands—Fromentera—Majorca,	15
Minorca,	16
Ancient Inhabitants,	17
Origin of the word Spain—Ancient Inhabitants—Celtiberi,	18
Earliest colonies,	19
Spain a Roman province—Lusitania—Betica—Tarraconensis—Inhabitants of Lusitania,	20
Inhabitants of Betica—Inhabitants of Tarraconensis,	21

Page
Manners of the ancient Spaniards, 22
Dress—Spain in the Middle ages, 23
Spain under the Moors, 24
Conquest of the kingdom of Grenada, 25
Expulsion of the Moors, 26

BOOK CXXXVIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Spanish Peninsula.—Kingdom of Portugal and Algarva.

General remarks, 27
Position, Political limits—Natural limits, 28
Climate—Seasons and temperature, 29–30
Climate of Lisbon and the provinces—Storms—Salubrity of Portugal, 31
Diseases—Earthquakes, 32
Mineral wealth—Agriculture, 33
Cattle, 34
Animals—Wild Animals, 35
Fish—Religion, 36, 38
Amusements—Language, 39
Literature—Fine Arts, 40
Government, 41
Lisbon, 42
Population—Buildings, 43
Scientific Institutions—Police—Neighbourhood of Lisbon—Aqueduct of Bemfica, 44
Other Towns, 45
Province of Beira—Coimbra—Province of Entre Douro e Mino, 46
Province of Tras-os-Montes and Alen Tejo, 47
Province of Algarva—Portuguese Foreign Possessions, 48
Commerce of Portugal, 49
Statistical Tables—Portugal, 50, 55

BOOK CXXXIX.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Spanish Peninsula.—Kingdom of Spain.

	Page
Origin of the Spanish Monarchy—Population of Spain,	56
Religion—Physical and Moral Character of the Spaniards,	57
Language and Literature—Sciences and Arts,	58
Government,	59
Power of the Crown,	60
Agriculture—Products,	61
Vineyards,	62
Sheep,	63
Sheep-Shearing—Oxen,	64
Horses—Wild Animals—Grasshoppers—Fish,	65
Divisions,	66
Kingdom of Navarre—Pampeluna,	67
Vascongades—Province of Guipuscoa,	68
Saint Sebastian—Province of Biscay—Province of Alava—Vittoria,	69
Principality of the Asturias—Oviedo—Gallicia,	70–71
Ports in Gallicia—Province of Leon—Town of Leon,	72–73
Old Castile,	74
Santander—Burgos—Soria – Segovia,	75
St Ildefonse,	76
Avila—Kingdom of Arragon, chief town,	77
Saragossa,	78
Catalonia—Junquera,	79
Urgel—Mount Serrat,	80
Cardona—Solsona,	81
Mataro—Barcelona,	82–83
Falls of St Michael—Road to Tarragona,	84
Tortosa—Kingdom of Valencia—Character of the Valencians,	85–86
Towns—Valencia,	87
Neighbourhood of Valencia—Alicante,	88
New Castile—Province of Cuenca—Province of Guadalaxara—Province of Madrid,	89–90
Bull fights,	91, 93

Page
King of Spain and the Indies—Arsenal, 94
Walks—Bridge on the Manzanares—Industry—Environs of Madrid, 95, 97
Manners of the People of Madrid—Province of Toledo—Toledo, 98
Province of La Mancha—Estremadura, 99
Character of the Inhabitants—Chief Towns of the Districts—Alcantara, 100
Caceres—Merida, 101
Badajos, 102
Andalusia—Nuevas Poblaciones, 103
Character—Kingdom of Jaen, 104
Lucena—Cordova, 105
Province of Seville, 106
Seville, 107–108
The Giralda—Ruins of Italica—The Province of Cadiz, 109
Xeres—Cadiz, 110
Fortifications—Buildings, 111
Medina Sidonia—Province of Grenada, 112
Ronda, 113
Province of Malaga—Vineyards, 114
Lover's Mountain, 115
Alhama, 116
Grenada, 117
Guadix—Province of Murcia, 118
Baleares, 119
Manners—Costume—Marriages, 120
Fromentera—Cabrera—Majorca, 121
Dress—Minorca, 122
Commerce and Industry—Foreign Trade, 123
Republic of Andorra—Origin, 124
Government, 125
Statistical Tables of Spain, 126–137

BOOK CXL.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

France.—Historical Notice.

Page
Ancient Inhabitants, 138–140
Division of Gaul under the Romans, 140
First Narbonnaise—Second do—Maritime Alps—Novempopulania—First Aquitaine, 141
Second Aquitaine—Viennoise—Great Sequanaise—First Lyonnaise, Second do, 142
Third and Fourth Lyonnaise—First and Second Belgium, 143
First Germany—Celtic Language—Government of the Celts, 144
Manners, 145
Marriage—Worship, 146, 147
Mistletoe—Chief of the Druids—Druidesses, 148
Influence of the Roman Conquests—Christianity substituted for Druidism, 149
Burgundians and Visigoths—Franks, 150, 151
France under Charlemagne—France under Hugh Capet and his Successors, 152
State of France under Philip of Valois and his Successors, 153
France under Henry IV, and Lewis XIII, 154
France under Lewis XIV, and XV—French Revolution—Reign of Terror, 155–156
French Empire—Piedmont united to the Empire—Part of Italy, the Banks of the Ebro, and the Coasts of the Baltic added to the Empire, 157
Return of Napoleon—Loss of Sarre Lewis—Position of France, 158
Dimensions, 159
Corsica—Ancient Names and Inhabitants, 160
History and Revolutions of Corsica, 161
Pascal Paoli—Corsica ceded to France, 162

BOOK CXLI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Physical Geography of France.

	Page
Franco-Celtic Group—Ceveno-Vosgian Chain,	164
Armorican Chain—Basins and Rivers—Garonne,	165
Rhone,	166
Loire—Seine,	167
Germanic Basin—Meuse,	168
Scheldt—Somme—Orne—Rance—Vilaine,	169
Charente—Adour—Aude—Argens,	170–171
Capes—Gulfs and Bays,	172
Islands,	173
Corsica—Geology—Preliminary Remarks,	174
Ancient Sandstone—Saline Deposits—Calcareous rocks on Jura—Chalk Deposits,	175
Ancient Reptiles—Higher Deposits,	176
Ancient Quadrupeds,	177
Ridge of Auvergne,	178
Fossil Animals—Lands in Corsica—Substances used in the Arts—Granite and Porphyry,	179
Marble,	180
Slate Stones for Building—Argil Porcelain—Flint, Chalk,	181
Metals—Mineral Substances not Metallic,	182
Value of the Mineral Products—Mineral Springs—Atmospheric Phenomena,	183
Winds—Rain,	184
Temperature—Regions of different Plants,	185
Influence of the Sea,	186
Height of the Soil—Plants indigenous to France,	187
Forest Trees—Cerasus Sylvestris,	188
Vegetables—Vines—Soil,	189
Mountainous Regions—Chalky Plains—Products of the Soil,	190
Natural Vegetation—Animals,	191
Birds—Birds of Passage—Partridges, &c,	192
Reptiles—Batrachian Class,	193
Whales,	194

Page
Snails—Molluccæ—Crustacea—Insects, 195
Horses, 196
Oxen, 197
Pigs—Poultry, 198
Importations, 199

BOOK CXLII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of France.—First Section. Southern Region.

Five Regions, 200
Corsica—Ajaccio, 201
Bastia—Mariana—Department of the Var, 202
Antibes—Frejus—Saint Tropes, 203
Toulon, 204
Gorges d'Ollioules—Brignolles—Draguignan—Grasse—Department of the Lower Alps—Castellane, 205
Sisteron, 206
Department of the Bouches du Rhone—Aix, 207
Procession, Corpus Christi—Marseilles, 208
Arles, 209
Department of Vaucluse—Avignon, 210
Apt—Carpentras—Fountain of Vaucluse, 211
The Sorgues—Orange, 212
Department of Drome—Montelimart—Valence—Department of the High Alps, 213
Briançon, 214
Department of the Isere—Road from Briançon to Grenoble—Grenoble, 215
Sassenage—Great Chartreuse, 216–217
Offering of Omelets—Vienne, 218–219
Department of the Ardeche—Etymology of the word Helvia—Volcanic Mountains, 220
Pont de la Beaume—Chenavari—Rochemaure—Giant's Road—Gueule d'Enfer, 221
Bridge of Arc, 222

Page
Domain of Ubas—Volcano of Prasancoupe—Loubaresse, 223
Argentiere—Temple of Mithra—Villeneuve de Berg, 224
Privas—Annonay, 225
Character of the people—Climate—Department of the Upper Loire, 226
Mineral products—Puy, 227
Image of the Virgin, 228
Department of the Lozere—Pas de Souci—Mende, 229
Chateauneuf de Randon—Luc, 230
Department of the Gard—Alais—Uzes—Pont St Esprit, 231
Nimes, 232
Beaucaire—Aigues—Mortes, 233
Products of the Department—Department of the Herault—Gange—Lodeve, 234
Montpellier—Celebrated men—Antiquities and Curiosities, 235
Botanical Garden—Lunel—Cette, 236
Beziers—Department of the Tarn, 237
Alby—Trembling Rock—Grotto of St Dominic, 238
Departments of the Upper Garonne, 239
Toulouse—Antiquities—Capitole, 240
Muret—Saint Gaudens—Bagneres de Luchon, 241
Department of Aude—Castel Naudary, 242
Carcassons, 243
Department of the Eastern Pyrenees—Perpignan, 244
Ceret—Port-Vendre—Department of the Ariege, 245
Foix—Saint Girons—Department of the High Pyrenees, 246
Tarbes—Campan—Couterets, 248
Department of the Lower Pyrenees, 249
Pau, 250
Oleron—Bayonne, 251
Department of Landes—Dax, 252
St Sever, 253
Department of Gironde, 254
Bazas—Langon—Bordeaux, 255
Castle of Ha, 256–57
Industry and Trade—Libourne—La Reole, 258
Department of the Lot and Garonne, 259
Marmande—Tonneins—Agen, 260
Nerac—Department of the Gers—Condom—Auch, 261

Page
Lectoure—Last count of Armagnac, 262–63
Department of Tarn and Garonne—Moissac, 264
Montauban—Department of Aveyron, 265
Spontaneous combustions, 266
Rhodez, 267
St Afrique—Department of Lot—Figeac—Ancient ceremony, 268
Cahors—Ancient privileges of the Bishop, 269
Subprefectures—Department of Dordogne, 270
Sarlat—Perigueux, 271
Brantome, 272

BOOK CXLIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

France.—Second Section. Western Region.

Department of Charente, 274
Angouleme, Confolans, 275
Jarnac—Cognac—Department of Lower Charente, 276
Saintes, 277
Rochefort—Rochelle, 278
Department of Vendée, 279
Fontenay-le-Comte—Sables d'Olonnes, 280
Bourbon Vendée—Department of Deux Sevres, 281
Niort—Parthenay, 282
Department of Vienne—Civray—Poitiers, 283
Chatelherault—Loudun, 284
Department of Maine and Loire, 285
Subprefectures, 286
Angers—Pont de Ce, 287
Beaupreau—Cholet—Department of the Lower Loire—Soil and industry of the Department, 288
Nantes, 289–290
Paimbeuf—Department of Morbihan—Vannes, 291
Peninsula of Rhuys—Islands—Quiberon, 292
Carnac—Lorient—Port-Louis, 293

Page
Ploërmel—Pontivy—Department of Finistere, 294
Quimperlé—Quimper, 295
Concarnean—Chateaulin—Carhaix, 296
Brest, 297
Landernan—Morlaix—St Pol-de-Leon—Department of the Cotes du Nord, 298
Laudeac—St Brieuc, 299
Dinan—Department of Ille and Villaine, 300
St Malo—Fougueres, 301
Montfort-sur-Meu—Rennes, 302
Buildings—Vitré, 303
Department of Mayenne—Laval, 304
Chateau Gonthier—Mayenne, 305
Department of Sarthe—Mamers—Mans, 306
Saint Calais, 307
La Fleche, 308

BOOK CXLIV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of France.—Third Section. Central Region.

Department of Indre and Loire, 309
Former prosperity of Touraine, 310
Tours, 311
Amboise—Chateau—Renault, 312
Langeais—Chinon—La Haye Descartes, 313
Loches—Department of Loire and Cher—Blois, 314
Chambord—Romarantin—Vendome, 315
Department of Eure and Loir—Nogent-le-Rotrou, 316
Dreux—Burgh of Anet—Maintenon, 317
Chartres—Collections, 318
Chateaudun—Department of Loiret—Orleans, 319
Scientific Institutions, 320
Commerce, 321
Pithiviers—Montargis—Quality of the Soil in the Department—Department of Nievre, 322

Page
Cosne—Pouilly—La Charité—Clamecy, 323
District of Chateau—Chinon—Nevers—Industry, 324
Department of Allier—Moulins, 325
Souvigny—Bourbon—l'Archambault, 326
La Palisse—Vichy—Mont-Lucon—Neris, 327
Department of Creuse—Aubusson, 328
Gueret—Department of Cher—Saint-Amand, 329
Bourges, 330
Antiquity of Bourges, 331
Mehun—Department of Indre, 332
Levroux—Chateauroux, 333
La-Chatre—Department of Upper Vienne, 334
Bellac—Limoges, 335
Antiquity of Limoges—Rochechouard, 336
Department of Correze, 337
Uzerche—Tulle—Brives-la-Galliarde, 338
Ussel—Department of Cantal, 339
Industry—Maurs—Aurillac, 340
Vic-en-Carladez—Saint Flour—Chaudes-Aigues, 341
Murat—Department of Puy-de-Dome, 342
Appearance of Mont-Dor—Trou de Saucy, 343
Puy de Saucy—Valley of Enfer, 344
Valley of Mont-Dor—Cascade of the Serpent—Great Cascade—Capuchin—Bains, 345
Lake Chambon—Issoire, 346
Billom—Mountain of Gergovia, 347
Pont-du-Chateau—Clermont—Squares, 348
Scientific Institutions—Fountain of Sainte-Alyre, 349
Industry of Clermont—Neighbourhood—Mont-Ferrand, 350
Valley of Royat—Puy-de-Dome, 351
Puy-de-Nadailhat—Puy-de-Pariou—The Great Sarcouy, 352
Pont—Gibaud—Volvic, 353
Riom—Aigues Perse—Thiers, 354
Ambert—Wealth of the Department—Poverty of the Inhabitants, 355–356

BOOK CXLV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

France.—Fourth Section. Eastern Region.

	Page
Department of Loire,	357
Rive de Gier—Railroad,	358
Saint Etienne,	359
Montbrison—Roanne,	360
Department of the Rhone—Tarare,	361
Ville—Franche—Lyons,	362
Origin and Antiquity,	363
Squares,	364
Historical Recollections,	365
Industry—Edifices,	366
Scientific Societies—Charitable Institutions,	367
Celebrated Men—Department of Ain,	368
Trevoux—Bourg-en-Bresse—Belley,	369
Nantua—Gex—Department of the Saone and Loire,	370
Tournus—Charolles—Chalons-sur-Saone,	371
Autun—Department of Cote-d'Or,	372
Nolay—Beaune—Jean de Losne—Dijon,	373
Auxonne,	374
Montbard—Department of the Yonne,	375
Avallon—Vermanton—Chablis,	376
Auxerre,	377
Joigmy—Sens,	378
Festival of Fools,	379
Tonnere—Department of Upper Saone,	380
Fougerolles—Saint Loup—Luxeuil,	381
Vesoul,	382, 383
Neighbourhood of Vesoul—Gray—Department of Jura,	384
Dole,	385
Poligny—Arbois,	386
Salines,	387
Lons-le-Saulnier,	388
Ancient Customs—Septmoncel,	389

Page
Saint Claude, 390
Department of Doubs—Pontarlier, 391
Besancon, 392, 393
Saint-Hippolyte—Montbelliard—Department of Upper Rhine —Béfort, 394
Huningue—Mulhausen, 395
Neuf-Brisach—Colmar—Department of Lower Rhine, 396
Strasburg, 397
Edifices—Places of Instruction—Celebrated men, 398
Neighbourhood—Antiquity—Peasantry—Dress, 399
Haguena—Sauverne, 400

BOOK CXLVI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of France.—Fifth Section. North Region.

Department of Moselle, 401
Bitche—Sarregue Mines—Thionville, 402
Sierck—Longwy—Metz, 403
Antiquities, 404
Metz in the middle ages—Interior Institutions, 405
Department of Meuse—Etian—Verdun, 406
Bar—Saint Mihiel, 407
Department of Vosges—Domremy, 408
Appearance and riches of the Vosges, 409
Epinal—Remiremont, 410
Saint-Die—Department of Meurthe—Cirey, 411
Dieuze—Luneville, 412
Road from Luneville to Nancy—Nancy, 413
Useful Institutions—Pont-à-Mousson, 414
Toul—Department of Upper Marne—Bourbon-les-Bains, 415
Langres—Eponina and Sabinus, 416
Chaumont—Joinville—Vassy—Department of Aube, 417
Bar-sur-Aube, 418
Brienne—Bur-sur-Seine—Troyes, 419

Page
Buildings, 420
Arcis-sur-Aube—Department of Marne—Vetry-le-Brûle, 421
Vitry-le-Francois—Sezanne—Montmirail—Epernay, 422
Chalons, 423
Courtisou—Sainte Menehould, 424
Reims—Buildings, 425
Department of Ardennes, 426
Rethel—Sedan, 427
Mezieres—Charleville—Fumay, 428
Givet and Charlemont—Department of Aisne, 429
Guise—Saint Quentin, 430
La Fere—Saint Gobuin—Laon, 431
Soissons—La Ferté Milon—Chateau Thierry, 432
Department of Seine and Marne—La Ferté Sous—Jouaire—Meaux, 433
Melun—Fontaine-Bleau—Nemours, 434
Montereau—Provins, 435
Department of Oise—Senlis, 436
Creil—Compiegne, 437
Noyon—Clermont, 438
Beauvais—Department of Seine and Oise, 439
Pontoise—Rosny, 440
Meulan—Poissy—Forest of Saint Germain, 441
Marly—Ruel—Argenteuil—Saint Cloud, 442
Meudon—Sevres—Versailles, 443
Castle—Trianon—Expense of the Palace at Versailles, 444
Neighbourhood of Versailles—Montfort-l'Amaury—Rambouillet Dourdan—Etampes, 446
Corbeil—Riches of the Department—Department of the Seine, 447
Enlargement of Paris by Charles VI, 448
By Henry IV—By Lewis XIII, and XIV, 449
By Lewis XV—Monuments of the reign of Lewis XIV, XV, and XVI, 450
Under the Consular and Imperial Government—Quays—Bridges, 451
Since the Restoration, 452
Population—Under Philip the Fair—Under Lewis XI, 453
Under Henry II—Under Henry IV—Under Lewis XIV—Churches, Religious Houses, &c, 454

Page

Scientific Institutions, Schools, &c—Neighbourhood of Paris —Saint Dennis, 455
Vincennes—Arcueil—Fontenay-aux-Roses—Sceaux—Department of Eure, 456
Vernon—Evreux—The Audelys, 457
Valley of Fleury—Louviers, 458
Pont-Audemer—Bernay—Department of Orne—Argentan, 459
Mortagne—Seez—Alençon—Dumfront, 460
Department of Manche—Avranches—Coutances, 461
Cherbourg, 462
Saint Lo—Department of Calvados, 463
Isigny—Bayeux—Falaise, 464
Caen, 465
Lisieux—Honfleur, 466
Department of Lower Seine—Lillebonne, 467
Caudebec—Rouen, 468
Elbeuf—Gournay—Aumale, 469
Department of Somme—Abbeville, 470
Amiens—Peronne—Montdidier, 471
Department of Pas-de-Calais—Montreuil, 472
Calais—Guines—Ardres, 473
Arras—Department of Nord, 474
Cambray—Landrecy—Maubeuge, 475
Valenciennes—Anzin—Famars—Denain, 476
Condé—Saint Amand—Douai—Lille, 477
Armentieres—Hazebrouck—Bergues—Gravelines, 478
Dunkerque, 479
Roads—Canals, 480
Money, 481
Statistical Tables of France, 482–509

BOOK CXLVII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of the Scandinavian Peninsula.—Kingdom of Norway.

	Page
Language of the Scald Poetry—Scandinavian Poems,	510
Creation of the world and of man—The Olympus of the North,	511–512
Destruction of the universe,	513
Resurrection of the world—Origin of this Cosmogony—Runic alphabet,	514
Ancient name,	515
Ancient inhabitants—Ancient manners,	516
Ancient names of Norway—Historical Notices,	517
Government, &c,	518–519
Actual state,	520
Summer occupations—Winter occupations,	521
Character of the Norwegians—Dress—Manners of towns,	522
Mountains—Rivers,	523
Geological constitution,	524
Mineral wealth—Vegetation,	525–526
Animal kingdom,	527
Climate,	528
General appearance—Cities and towns—Hammerfest,	529
Drontheim—Bergen,	530
Christiansand—Arendahl,	531
Frederikstadt—Kongsberg—Christiana,	532
Frederikshall,	533

BOOK CXLVIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of the Scandinavian Peninsula.—Description of Sweden.

	Page
Laplanders,	536
Westro-Bothnia—Jemtia or Joemtland—Helsingia—Nericia —Dalecarlia—Gothia or Gothland—Rivers,	537
Lakes—Canals,	538
Roads—Oeland—Gothland—Huen—Geology,	539
Rocks, &c—Transported earths,	540
Animals—Vegetation,	541
Agriculture—Climate,	542
Seasons—Cities and towns—Lulea,	543
Umea—Manners of the Laplanders—Northern Swedes,	544
Hernoesand—Gefle—Falun—Manners of the Dalecarlians —Helsingian,	545
Upsal,	546
Upsal Cathedral—Curiosities of this Cathedral,	547
Stockholm—Surrounding country,	548
Royal Palace,	549
Squares—Cathedral,	550
Useful institutions—Œrebro—Carlstud,	551
Linkpoeing—Joenkoeping—Gottenburg,	552
Uddevalla—Helmstadt—Lund—Malmoe—Christianstadt,	553
Carlscrona—Calmar—Union of Calmar,	554
Wisby—Manners of Southern Sweden—Fêtes and amusements,	555
Education—Police,	556
Navy—Laws—Government 1772,	557
Council of State—States-General—Industry and trade,	558–559
Ameliorations,	560
Statistical Tables of the Swedish Monarchy,	561 to 567

BOOK CXLIX.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Description of Denmark and of the Fœroe Isles.

	Page
Limits of Denmark,	568
Diminution of the Baltic Sea,	569
Geology—Vegetable fossils,	570
Arms of the sea and bays,	571
Canals,	572
Dimensions of Denmark—Climate—Seasons—Vegetation—Forests,	573
Meadows—Cultivation,	574
Wild Animals—Domestic animals,	575
Fish—Commerce,	576
Language—Danish character,	577
The Holsteiner—Education,	578
Learned men,	579
Artists—Government,	580–581
Revolution of 1660,	582
Establishment of absolute power,	583
Actual form of government,	584
Orders—Privileges of some provinces—Peasantry,	585
Aspect of the Danish coast—Sound duties—Copenhagen,	586
Disasters of Copenhagen—Its quarters,	587
Literary establishments—Industry and trade,	588
Police—Environs of Copenhagen—Elsineur,	589
Islands—Aalborg,	590
Sleswick—Flensborg,	591
Islands on the western coast—Islands on the eastern coast—Duchy of Holstein,	592
Gluckstadt—Kiel,	593
Rendsbourg—Preetz—Probsty of Preetz,	594
Ploen—Itzehoe,	595
Cromlech—Obelisk—Elmsborn—Pinneberg,	596
Altona,	597–598

Page
Duchy of Lauenbourg—Lauenbourg, 599
Fœroe Islands, 600–601
Statistical Tables of the Danish Monarchy, 602–604

BOOK CL.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Belgium, or the Netherlands.

History and inhabitants, 605–606
Government of the late kingdom of the Netherlands, 607
Recent changes, 608–609
Mountains—Rivers, 610
Lakes and marshes—Geological constitution, 611
Configuration of the soils of Flanders—Mines, 612
Climate and Cultivation, 613–614
Manufactures, &c—Iron, &c—Woollen—Linen—Lace—Cotton, 615
Breweries, &c—Foreign trade—Roads and canals, 616
Religion—Cities—Antwerp, 617–618
Malines—Ghent, 619–620
Alost—Oudernarde—West Flanders—Bruges, 621
Ostend, 622
Courtray—Fields of battle, 623
Fontenoy—Fleurus—Steenkerke—Jomappe—Tournay, 624
Mons, 625
Dinant—Namur, 626
Nivelles—Waterloo—Brussels, 627
Squares, 628
Churches—Fountains—Population of the different quarters of the city, 629
Scientific and benevolent establishments—Promenades, 630
Louvain—Tirlemont, 631
Tongres—Maëstricht, 632

BOOK CLII.

Europe continued.

Description of Great Britain.

	Page
Physical features of the British Islands,	677
Enumeration of the British Islands,	678
Great Britain—Mountains,	679
Rivers and Basins—The Spey—The Forth—The Ouse—Thames—Severn—Clyde—Derwent Water,	680
Loch Lomond—Geology—Climate,	681
Isle of Wight—Anglesey,	682
Isle of Man—Arran—Hebrides—Orkneys,	683
Shetland Islands—Ireland,	684
Rivers of Ireland—Lakes—Bogs—Geology,	685
Metals—Animals of the British Islands,	686
Natural productions of the United Kingdom,	687

BOOK CLIII.

Europe continued.

Historical and Topographical Description of the British Islands. Section First—England and Wales.

Boundaries of England—Origin of the name of Britain,	688
Ancient inhabitants,	689
Invasion of the Angli—Jutes &c. Heptarchy—Wales,	690
Political Divisions of England—Anglo Norman Islands—Jersey	691
Guernsey—Alderney—Scilly Islands—Cornwall—Industry	692
Falmouth—Devonshire—Dartmoor,	693

Page
Plymouth, 694
Dorsetshire—Isle of Purbeck—Isle of Portland—Dorchester—Somersetshire—Bath, 695
Forest of Exmoor—Bristol—Gloucestershire—Clifton and Hot Wells, 696
Gloucester—Pin manufactory—Appearance and wealth of the country, 697
Wiltshire—Salisbury—Hampshire, 698
Winchester—Southampton—Portsmouth—Dock yards—Arsenal—Spithead—Yarmouth, 699
Sussex—Chichester—Arundel—Lewes—Hastings—Brighton, 700
County of Kent—Dover—Canterbury, 701
Cathedral—Rochester—Chatham—Woolwich—Deptford—Ancient Inhabitants, 702
County of Middlesex—London—Commerce of London—History of London, 703
Lighting of the streets of London, 704
Ravages of epidemical diseases—Great fire, 705
Municipal organization—View of the city, 706
Streets—Squares—Buildings, 707
Palaces—Churches—Bridges, 708
Public Walks—Newspapers—Theatres—Establishments for instruction—Hospitals, 709
Religious Statistics—Number of Houses, Streets and Squares—People without occupation, 710
Police—Environs of London, 711
View of Middlesex—Surrey—Guilford—Berkshire—Reading 712
White Horse Vale—Oxfordshire—Oxford—University of Oxford, 713
Manufacturing Towns, 714
Buckinghamshire—Chiltern Hills—Aylesbury—Buckingham—Hertfordshire, 715
Hertford—General view of Hertfordshire—County of Essex, 716
Chelmsford—County of Suffolk—Ipswich, 717
Cambridgeshire—Cambridge—University of Cambridge, 718
Ely—County of Norfolk—Cultivation—Shores—Yarmouth, 719
Lynn Regis—Norwich—Manufactures—Lincolnshire, 720
Boston—Lincoln, 721

Page
Foss Dike—Lincoln Cathedral—Yorkshire—York—Minster, 722
Edifices—Trade—Extent of Yorkshire, 723
Cities—Durham, 724
Stockton—Sunderland—County of Northumberland, 725
Berwick—Alnwick, 726
Freeman's Well—Newcastle, 727
Carlisle—County of Cumberland—Derwent Water—Mountains, 728
Isle of Man—County of Westmoreland—Appleby, 729
Lancashire—Industry of the County, 730
Inhabitants—Lancaster—Manchester, 731
Liverpool, 732
Cheshire—Chester—Nantwich, 733
Derbyshire—Derby, 734
Nottingham—Nottinghamshire—Leicestershire—Leicester, 735
Oakham—Rutlandshire—Northamptonshire, 736
Peterborough—Northampton—Huntingdonshire—Whittlesea Mere—Huntingdon—Bedfordshire, 737
Bedford—Warwick—Coventry—Birmingham—Warwickshire, 738
Staffordshire—Newcastle—Stafford—Litchfield, 739
Shropshire—Shrewsbury—Worcestershire—Kidderminster, 740
Worcester—Herefordshire—Hereford, 741
Monmouthshire—Monmouth—Chepstow—Principality of Wales, 742
South Wales, 743
North Wales—Administration of Justice, 744
Cardiff—Swansea—Carmarthen, 745
Pembroke—St David's—Cardigan—Radnor—Montgomery, Denbigh—Flint, 746
Caernarvon—Bangor—Baumaris—Amlwich, 747

BOOK CLIV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Historical and Topographical Description of the British Islands.

Section Second. — Description of Scotland.

	Page
Wigtonshire—Port Patrick—Kirkcudbrightshire—Dumfries,	748
Annan—Moffat—Divisions of Scotland,	749
Inhabitants—Manners—Languages,	750
Antiquities—Ancient Inhabitants—Cimbri—Picti—Attacotti,	751
Middle Ages—Names of Scotland—Rivalry of Scotland and England,	752
Independence of Scotland,	753
Union of Scotland and England—Administration of Justice—Ecclesiastical Organization,	754
Education—Industry—Towns—Jedburg—Melrose,	755
Selkirk—Dunse—County of East Lothian—County of Mid Lothian—Edinburgh,	756
Streets—Buildings,	757
Palace of Holyrood—University of Edinburgh,	758
Literary and Learned Societies—Manners—Trade,	759
Leith—Linlithgow—Lanark—Glasgow—Increase of its population and industry,	760
Commerce—Streets—Establishments for Instruction,	761
Peebles—Renfrew—Stirling,	762

Page
Falkirk—Carron—Foundries of Carron—Clackmannan—Kinross, 763
Cupar—Forfarshire—Bervie—Aberdeen—The Lowlands—The Highlands, 764
Manners of the Highlanders, 765
County of Bute—Islands of Bute and Arran—Dumbarton, 766
Loch Lomond—Inverary—View of the County of Perth, 767
Inverness—Island of Skye—Dunvegan—Banff—Elgin, 768
Lairn—Cromarty—Tain—The Hebrides or Western Islands—County of Sutherland—Dornoch—Thurso—Wick—County of the Orkneys—Orkney and Shetland Islands, 769
Inhabitants of the Orkneys—Kirkwall—Inhabitants of the Shetland Islands, 770
Lerwick—Scalloway—Learning of Scotland, 771

BOOK CLV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Historical and Topographical Description of the British Islands. Section Third. Description of Ireland.

General View of Ireland, 772
Ancient Inhabitants, 773
Language—Ancient race of Kings—First Cities—History—Ireland under Henry II, 774
Under Henry VIII—Under Elizabeth—Under James I, 775
Under Charles I—Under James II, and William—Irish Rebellion, 776
Parliament of Ireland—Moral condition of Ireland—Learning—Scholars, 777
Charitable Societies—Ecclesiastical Divisions, 778

Page
Industry—Exports—Number of Workmen, 779
Administrative Divisions—Towns and Cities—Londonderry —Carrickfergus—Belfast, 780
Lisburn—Armagh—Downpatrick—Neway—Province of Connaught—Sligo—Castlebar—Galway—Dublin, 781
Streets—Edifices, 782
Public Walks—Canals, &c, 783
Police—Industry—Commerce—History of Dublin—Drogheda, 784
Kildare—Kilkenny—Province of Munster—Limerick—Cashel—Clonmel—Killarney—Kerry, 785
Lake of Killarney—Cork, 786
Kinsale—Waterford—General View of Ireland—Increase of Population, 787
Appearance of the People—Celebrated Men, 788
Advantageous position of the British Islands—Historical Review—Elizabeth, 789
James I—Charles I—Cromwell—Charles II—James II William III, 790
Anne—House of Brunswick—George III, 791
—American War, 792
Coalitions against France—Overthrow of the French Empire—Future prospects of England, 793
Government—Parliament—Ministers, 794
House of Commons—Primogeniture, 795
Remedy for the Poor-Rates—Advantages enjoyed by England—Army, 796
Character of the Inhabitants of the British Isles—English, 797
Scotch—Irish, 798
Recent Events—Change of Ministry—Accession of the Whigs to power, 799
Reform Bill—Concluding Remarks, 802, 804

SYSTEM

OF

UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK CXXXVII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Physical Geography of the Spanish Peninsula.—History of the ancient People that inhabited Spain and Portugal.—Mussulman Conquest.

No part of Europe is more favoured by nature than the Spanish Peninsula; in ancient times, its mountains defended it against the attacks of hostile tribes; and so great is the variety of its climate that the productions of the tropics are blended with those of the temperate zone. Lofty plains, fruitful in useful plants, hills covered with vineyards, rich valleys watered by streams and rivers, so situated as to afford easy communications by means of canals, are the elements of an agricultural wealth, which might be rendered by industry more valuable than the possession of the largest colonies. A vast extent of coast, spacious and safe harbours, open to the navigation of two seas, are not less favourable to commerce. By what causes have the sources of so great prosperity been destroyed? The population of France exceeds that of Spain by fourteen millions, but the superficial extent of Spain is greater by two thousand and sixty-five square leagues.

Extent and surface.

The same vast region has been called a peninsula, perhaps incorrectly, for the space between the gulfs of Lions and Gascony can hardly be considered an isthmus. The Pyrenees separate it from France; one half of the country

BOOK CXXXVII.

is watered by the ocean, and the other by the Mediterranean. The greatest length from east to west may be equal to 220 leagues, and the greatest breadth from north to south, to 190. The surface of the Peninsula is equal to 28,804 square leagues, of these, 4,922 belong to Portugal, 23,867 to Spain, and 15 to the republic of Andorra.*

Mountains

It is only of late years that the physical geography of the country has been accurately described. The mountains by which it is divided, it was supposed, extended from a common centre, and their ramifications were compared to the veins of a vine leaf. A writer of very varied acquirements has detected the errors of former geographers. If the Spaniards are now less ignorant of the mountains, rivers and basins in their Peninsula, they are indebted to the labours of a foreigner.†

The mountains in the Peninsula, according to M. Bory de St. Vincent, form seven different divisions.

Pyrenees.

The whole chain of the Pyrenees may be divided into five principal masses. First, the *Mediterranean* or eastern, in which the highest summit is the peak of Canigou, from its declivities rise the Segro, a feeder of the Ebro, the Ter and the Llobrega that throw themselves into the Mediterranean; secondly, the *Aquitanian*, their glaciers are the sources of the Garonne and the Adour, but no large river flows from it into Spain; thirdly, the *Cantabrian* or central, separated from the Asturian by the sources of the Ebro; fourthly, the Asturian, almost as high as the Aquitanian, and rising abruptly on the south; fifthly, the Portuguese or western, of which the ramifications extend to the embouchure of the Duero.

Rocks.

A geologist has observed that although the Pyrenees belong to the granite formation, the same substance is not so ancient as in several parts of Europe.‡ Granite rocks

* These leagues are each equal to two English miles and a half, if then they be multiplied by 6 1-4, the result will be equal to the superficial extent of the Peninsula in English square miles.

† See Le Guide du Voyageur en Espagne, by M. Bory de St. Vincent. See also Dictionario de Espano y Portugal, by Doctor Sebastiano de Minano, ten volumes in quarto. The article Spain, in the Dictionary, is almost a translation of M. St. Vincent's work.

‡ M. de Charpentier, Essai sur la Constitution Géognostique des Pyrenees.

are seen throughout the whole range, and they still bear the marks of a former revolution. Micaceous and other sorts of schistus rest on the sides of the mountains, and support organic remains of an ancient date; these are overtopped by red sandstone; lastly, calcareous rocks, similar to others on the Alps and Jura, extend to the lowest declivities. White marble appears in different directions above the granite, and the Alpine limestone is in many places covered with amphibole.

Iberian range.

The Iberian range consists of different chains, which are united on the north-west with the Pyrenees, and terminated on the south-east, near the banks of the Guadalaviar. These different chains, united to each other, are called the *Sierra de Oca*, the *Sierra de Moncayo*, the *Sierra de Gudar*, and the *Sierra de Espadano*. The Sierra di Molina joins the Albaracino and the mountains of Cuenca.

Fossil bones.

The same chains form the subdivision that has been called the Esperian mountains. Ancient calcareous rocks abound, and the low plains are covered with alluvial lands, mixed with so many fossil bones, that the country is known to the inhabitants by the name of Las Calaveras.* Many of the remains belong to animals now extinct. The plains from the sources of the Guadalaviar to its mouth, are watered by rapid streams, and surrounded by steep heights. The Sierra of Espadano has been compared to a long wall; lofty peaks are seen from sombre valleys, and tortuous ravines intersected by many rivulets form an inextricable and gigantic labyrinth. Ancient calcareous rocks, abounding in different metals, rise towards the east, but on the west, the country assumes a different aspect, the mountains are less precipitous, their black and porous rocks indicate a volcanic origin.

Carpetano-Vettonic range.

The Carpetano-Vettonic range, so called because in ancient times, its sides were inhabited by the Carpetani and the Vettones, joins the Iberian mountains, and terminates on the west at Mount Junto, which commands the Tagus at no great distance from its embouchure. The principal chain is steep and narrow, it bounds Old and New Cas-

* Calavera signifies a skeleton.

BOOK CXXXVII.

tile, and separates the province of Salamanca from Estramadura. From the same chain, during the winter season, proceed the storms and tempests that are not uncommon at Madrid; in summer, the heat of the atmosphere is increased by the burning winds, which blow from Africa, and traverse the arid plains of La Mancha. Some summits are so lofty that the snow has been known to remain on them throughout the year. The range may be divided into three groups; the eastern, formed by the Somo-Sierra and the Guadarama, the central or the Sierra de Gredos, the most elevated of them all, it has its glacier near the *Palacio del Moro Almanzor*; many streams, that rise from different lakes in the same part of the country, enlarge the Tormes, a feeder of the Duero; lastly, the western group comprehends the *Pena de Francia*, the *Sierra de Gata*, the *Estrella*, and the heights that reach to the neighbourhood of Lisbon. In no part of the Peninsula, are the woods and forests so extensive as in the last group. Granite appears to be the most common rock; it is of a coarse texture and a grayish colour; it may be concluded to be of a late formation, both from its liability to decomposition, and from the masses of a harder granite contained in it. Calcareous rocks abound in the neighbourhood of Madrid, while chalk and silex serve as a support for recent deposits.

Lusitanian range.

The Lusitanian range is lower than any that have been already mentioned, and the snow never remains on any part of it during the summer. It occupies the country between the Tagus and Guadiana, and is formed by the mountains of Toledo on the east, the Sierra de Guadaloupe on the centre, and the *Sierra* of *Saint Mames* on the west.

Marianic range.

The Marianic range, or the chain connected with the ancient Marianus, is higher than the last; the greatest elevation may be about 4600 feet, and the snow remains in some places during nine months in the year. A part of the chain separates the course of the Guadiana from the Guadalquivir. The eastern extremity consists of two branches, the *Sierra Alcaras* and the *Sierra de Segura*; the centre has been called the *Sierra Morena*, which signifies the black mountains, and recalls the ancient name of

Mons Marianus. The *Sierra Albaleyrra*, which terminates near the Guadiana, forms the western extremity. The heights that surround Alcaras, are composed of psammites or argillaceous sandstone; and a chain consisting of volcanoes, now extinguished, but still easily discernible, stretches almost to the sources of the river.*

Rocks.

The Cuneic range consists of the small chain, which the ancients called *Mons Cuneus*. It extends from the mouth of the Guadiana to Cape St. Vincent, and separates the kingdom of Algarva from the province of Alentejo, or the southern part of Portugal. It forms two chains, the eastern or the *Sierra Calderona*, and the western or the *Sierra de Monchiqua*. The heights are not lofty, and the range differs from the others in its constituent parts: sandstone is very common, but lava and other substances of the same sort appear on the eastern part; hence the name of *Sierra Calderona* or *Caldron Mountains* is not inapplicable to the volcanic products, for the craters still retain their forms and the characters that mark their origin.

Cuneick range.

The Betic range, of which the northern sides formed the Roman province of *Betica*, extends from the Rio Almanzor to the heights that terminate near the mouth of the Guadalquivir. The central part is made up of the Sierras Nevada and Loja. Although not the largest, it is certainly the loftiest range in the Peninsula. Many summits, higher than the Pyrenees, are covered with eternal snow. The steep sides of Algodonales and the Gastor are commanded by the peak of San Oristoval. The snow always appears on the top of Sierrania de Conda, where a small hermitage has been erected and dedicated to *Nuestra senora de las Nieves*. In the eastern part of the same range are different groups that rival each other in height; the most remarkable are the Sierra Prieta, the Sierra Alhama and the Sierra Tejeda; but in point of picturesque scenery, they cannot be compared with the Sierra de Torqual, in which the rocks, forms, and dimensions, are so singularly arranged that they might be compared to the ruins of a town

Betic range.

* Introduction a la Historia Natural y Geografia fisica de Espana, 4to. 1782.

BOOK CXXXVII.

built by the Titans. But these mountains are neither so imposing nor so lofty as the summits of Sierra Nevada, which, commanding the horizon on every side, bear the marks of perpetual winter. The snow line commences at the height of about 9500 feet above the level of the Mediterranean, which bathes the southern base. From these summits, says M. Bory de St. Vincent, may be seen at the same time the Sierra Morena, more than thirty leagues distant towards the north, and the coasts of Africa, which are at least forty-five leagues distant to the south. The Mulahacen is the most elevated point in that range of snow-covered peaks; it reaches nearly to the same height as the famous peak of Teneriffe, in other words to more than 12,700 feet.

The deep valleys in the Betic range cross each other in every direction, and most of them are watered and rendered fruitful by limpid streams.

Rocks.

The whole chain belongs to the primitive formation. The Sierra Nevada is schistous; limestone useful in building, and marble of different colours are supported on gneiss, and the onyx, a find kind of agate, is not uncommon in the neighbourhood of Cape Gata. The rock of Gibraltar, at the other extremity of the chain, rises to the height of 1470 feet above the Mediterranean. It has excited for a long time the attention of geologists. It consists of gray limestone, divided by perpendicular fissures, and these are filled with calcareous concretions, containing an immense quantity of bones and shells; many of the former belong to different sorts of deer, none of which are at present found in Europe. Such phenomena may be considered the proofs of a partial cataclysm, fatal to the animals on the sides of our continent.*

Parameras

As connected with the heights in the Peninsula, it may be worth while to mention the *Parameras* or platforms, all of which are very lofty, and many of a great size. They either extend between different parts of the ranges that have been already mentioned, or are situated near their summits, so that they appear less elevated than they really

* See Recherches sur les ossemens fossiles by M. G. Cuvier, 4to. 1821.

are. The most remarkable of these bare and solitary table lands are situated in the province of Soria. In the Pyrenees, in the mountains of Molina, Albarracino, Cuenca and also in those of Toledo and Gredos, may be seen other parameras, which, independently of their extent, might be compared with the arid summits in Tartary.

Basins.

Considered physically, the Peninsula may be divided into five large basins, and into as many others of a smaller size. To the first class belong the basins of the Ebro, the Duero, the Tagus, Guadiana and Guadalquivir; to the second, the basins of the Guadalaviar, Jucar, Segura, Mondego and Mino. The basin of the Ebro, although the smallest in the first class, is larger than any other that communicates with the Mediterranean. Three of the second class are inclined in the same direction; from four large basins and two of a smaller size, the waters of the Peninsula are borne to the ocean. Thus, before the straits at Gibraltar were formed, all the eastern and southern declivities in the country must have been submerged, while the others on the side of the ocean were not inundated.

Basin of the Tagus.

The Tagus flows through the longest basin in the Peninsula; it was famed in ancient times; its name has not been changed. Poets have celebrated the happy banks and flowery meads of the Tagus; but whoever surveys its numerous windings, discovers little that can justify the praises of Silius Italicus and other ancient writers. The arid banks are in most places very steep; for more than three-fourths of its course it flows with the rapidity of a torrent; the ancients styled it *Auratus*, but no particles of gold are now found in the red ooze carried down by the waters. The river takes its source in the Albarracino mountains, and the length of its course is not less than a hundred and seventy leagues. The principal feeders on the right bank are the *Jarama*, which is enlarged by the Tajuna, the *Guadarrama* that descends from the mountains of the same name, the *Albercho* that rises between the mountains of Gredos and Avila, the *Tietar* that has its source in the heights connected with the Gredos chain; lastly, the *Alagon* and the *Zezere*, the former rising from the Sierra de Francia, and the other at the base of the Sierra de Estrella.

BOOK CXXXVII.

The largest streams that enter the Tagus on the left bank, are the Rio del Monte and the Salor, the one descends from the Sierra Guadalupe, and the other from the Sierra of Montanches.

Basin of the Anas.

The ancient name of the Anas is still retained in the Guadiana, an Arabic periphrase which signifies the waters of the Ana. The length of the river may be about 150 leagues; it descends from the mountains of Cuenca, where it is called the Rio Gijuela; but as it is formed by several streams that unite with each other, its real source has not yet been determined. It is supposed that it issues from the marshes of Riduera, where indeed a rivulet escapes and disappears after a course of twenty-five miles; but it is seen anew near a place called the *Ojos* of *Guadiana*. The Ojos or Eyes are two large fountains of bubbling water which issue from the earth, and form by their junction a stream that the inhabitants of the country call the Guadiana. Several rivers are known which appear and disappear, but if the marshes of Riduera be really the sources of the Guadiana, it disappears twice before it runs through its extensive basin. The size of the river, still insignificant below Gijuela, is not much increased until it receives the Jabalon on the left bank, and the *Bullague* on the right, which descends from the mountains of Toledo. It receives at a greater distance from its source the *Guadalema* and the *Zuja* that rise in the mountains connected with the Sierra Morena; the other feeders are the *Matachel* that issues from the Sierra Constantina, the *Ardila* and the *Chanza*, that descend from the Sierra of Aracena. All these enlarge the Guadiana, and give it such a degree of velocity below Martola as to form a cataract, the Wolf's leap or *Salto del Lobo*.

Basin of the Duero.

The Duero, the ancient *Durius* or the *Douro*, according to its Portuguese name, flows through a broader basin than the Tagus or the Guadiana; it takes its source at the peak of Urbione, and separates it from the Sierra of Oca. The length of its course may be about a hundred and forty leagues, and as its basin is very broad, most of its feeders are important. The Pisuerga, one of the largest on the right bank, is formed by the junction of several rivers that rise in the Pyrenees and the Sierra de Oca; the Esla which

descends from the same chain and receives itself several large feeders, falls into the Duero below its junction with the Pisuerga; the Tamega enters the same river at the distance of fifteen leagues from the ocean. The feeders on the left bank, are the Eresma from the parameras of Avila, the Tormes from the lofty summits of Gredos, and the Rio Coa from the Sierra of Gata. The soil in different parts of the basin is not unfruitful, but in some places the land is so heavy, that the rain changes it into a thick and tenacious clay; in others, it consists of moving sand, on which the only plants are resinous trees. The river, after it leaves the mountains, waters dismal and extensive parameras, of which the elevation above the sea is not less than 2,400 feet. A wretched vegetation heightens the monotonous appearance of these immense plains.

Basin of the Guadalquivir.

When the Arabs made themselves masters of the Peninsula, they were struck with the great size of the Boetis, and gave it the name of the *Guad-al-Keber*, the same name has been changed by the Spaniards into *Guadalquivir*. According to the common opinion, it rises on the western declivities of the Sierra Sagra, but according to the rule generally adopted by geographers, the source of a river must be sought in the stream most distant from its mouth. The Guadermena, therefore, that descends from the Sierra Alcaras, has been incorrectly denominated, it ought to be called the Guadalquivir; thus the river rises in the basin of the Guadiana, and waters the Betican range. Two other large rivers, issuing from the same basin, enter the Guadalquivir on the right side, the one or the Ajandula flows across the Morena mountains, and the Biar or the other makes a passage for itself in the middle of the Sierra Constantina. The Genil or the ancient Singilis, the largest feeder that flows from the Nevada range, enters the same river on the left bank. The lands near the Genil are in many places deeply impregnated with salt; efflorescences, hurtful to vegetation, are formed in the summer season. The Guadalquivir, after its junction with the Genil, waters a low and fruitful country, but beyond the neighbourhood of Seville, a belt of land about two leagues in breadth, which the inhabitants call the *Marisma*, as insalu-

BOOK CXXXVII.

brious as the Italian Maremmas, extends from Tablado to the salt springs of San Lucar. That small region is intersected by several brackish streams, which descending from the declivities of Morone and Montelliano, change the country into a sort of marsh; a few slender plants, useful only in furnishing soda, are all the vegetation on the light ooze thus formed. But the river, divided into several branches, encloses different islands, the *Menor* and the *Major*, as well as others of great fertility, and numerous herds of cattle are reared on their rich meadows. The same river is not navigable above Cordova.

Basin of the Ebro.

It is from the ancient *Fons Ibera* in the valley of Reynosa that the Ebro takes its source. It was called the *Iberus* by the Romans; during the greater part of its course, it is confined by mountains, and the valleys they enclose, afford passages to its numerous feeders. On the left side, the Agra and the Arragon unite, and at no great distance beyond their junction, enter the river; the *Gallegos*, the *Cinca*, and the *Segre* are the rivers it receives below Mequinenza; all of them flow from the Pyrenees. Other feeders descend from the Oca heights, the Sierras of Moncayo and the Pena Goloca. The principal are the Xalon, which has been compared to the Marne, and the Guadalope, which the Arabs rendered useful by their canals on the basin of the Ebro. The length of its course amounts to 120 leagues; although less sinuous and more rapid than the Seine, it may be compared to it from the extent of its course and the body of its water. The rocks that fall from the mountains, often impede its navigation, thus the Spanish government has been at considerable expense in constructing a canal parallel to the river from Tudela to Sastaga. It might be equally useful to complete a canal, which was begun many years ago, between the Ebro and the Duero. The country between the two rivers, is not of such a nature as to oppose any great obstacles, but the funds are wanting for the completion of such a work. A canal stretches along the Segre between Mequinenza and Lerida, and others on the basin of the Ebro have diffused abundance into that part of Spain, still their number is not sufficient. The deposits which the river carries to the Mediterranean have formed a considerable delta

at is embouchure, and it has been necessary to cut a canal in order that vessels may ascend to the small town of Amposta below Tortosa.

Other basins.

The other basins in the Peninsula, although of less consequence, may be shortly mentioned. On the south of the Ebro, extends the basin of the Guadalaviar, a small river rising between the Sierras Molina and Albaracino, and fed by several streams, none of which are so large as the Alhambra. The length of the course may be more than 50 leagues: the basin, which it waters, is bounded on the north by the Pena Goloca, and other heights that extend towards the Ebro; on the west by the chain that stretches to the Albaracino range. On the south of the last is situated the basin of the Jucar, another small river, fed by the Gabriel and the Lambay, and forming many windings between mountains and hills. The Jucar rises on the western declivities of the Albaracino heights, and runs to the distance of more than eighty leagues. The basin of the Segura is larger than the two last; on the north and on the east it is bounded by hills, and a group, the Penas di San Pedro, extends on the north-west; on the east are situated the Sierra Sagra and the Sierra Alcaras. The Segura including its windings, may be equal in length to fifty-five leagues; it receives the streams of the Rio Mundo, the Quipar and the Sangonera. In the first part of its course, the country, which it waters, is wild and desert, but from the valley of Ricote to the Mediterranean, the lands are covered with the richest vegetation.

Basin of the Segura.

Mino.

Two small rivers discharge their waters into the ocean; the Mino or the larger descends from the Sierra de Mondonedo; although of considerable breadth the length of the course does not exceed sixty leagues. It flows southwards until it joins the Sil, then turns to the west where it is commanded on one side by the Sierras of *Penagache* and *Estrica*, and on the other by the Barcian chain. The mountains on the same basin, exclusively of those connected with the Pyrenees, are the Sierras of Segondina, from which the Bibey, a feeder of the Sil takes its source. The Mondego, a river to the south of the Duero, flows in the direction of east to west, the basin through which it passes, is enclosed by

BOOK CXXXVII.

the Sierras of Alcoba and Estrella; the distance from the source to its mouth is not less than fifty leagues, it is fed by the Alva, the Siere and the Soire.

The division of any country, according to the basins that may be contained in it, cannot satisfy the geographer, who seeks other limits than those which are seen, other boundaries than the courses of rivers. A writer,* who has thrown additional light on many subjects, has divided the Peninsula into four parts according to the inclination of the surface. The Cantabrian or Cantiberian is formed by the northern declivities of the Pyrenees, from the sources of the Adour to Cape Ortegal; the Lusitanian or the second consists of the southern declivities of the Pyrenees and other heights, watered by the Duero, the Tagus and the Guadiana; it forms a vast semicircle, of which the two extremities are Cape Ortegal and the mouths of the last river; the southern declivities of the Sierra Morena, and all the mountains connected with the same chain, that terminate at Cape Gata, including besides the Sierra Nevada, the hills from which the Guadalquivir and its feeders descend, make up the third or Iberian division. The last or the Betican comprehends the eastern declivities of all the mountains, which extending from Cape Gata to the Pyrenees, form the Sierras of Algamilla, Segura, Albaracino, Molina, Moncayo and Oca. The southern declivities of the Pyrenees, from their connexion with these Sierras, form part of the same division. This arrangement, intended to explain the passage taken by the sea, when it left the Peninsula, cannot be supposed to correspond strictly with the phenomena which the vegetation of the country presents. To elucidate that subject, another plan must be adopted; this fair portion of Europe may therefore be divided into six regions, thus it will not be difficult to classify the principal facts relative to the temperature.

Central region.

The central or Celtiberian region comprehends the two great ridges of old and new Castille, in other words, the Sierras of Gata, Gredos, Avila, the mountains of *Somo Sierra* on the north of the Tagus; the Sierra of Mames, the

* M. Bory de St. Vincent.

mountains of Toledo to the defiles of the Sierra Molina, and also all the western declivities of the Sierras Morena and Albaracino, as far as the Martes mountains on the south of the same river. Although forests and isolated summits may appear in this part of the Peninsula, it consists chiefly of sterile and immense plains; it is a junction of table lands, not unlike the central one in Asia Minor. The apple tree is nowhere seen, the olive begins to show itself on the south, and the vine succeeds almost throughout the whole extent. The oak that yields the sweet acorn, flourishes in the same part of the country; its fruit, not unlike the almond, may be conceived to have been food for the earliest inhabitants of Spain.

Betic region.

The southern or Betican region extends from east to west, from Cape Palos to Cape St. Vincent, and from north to south, from the southern declivities of the Sierra Morena, including the mountains of Algarva, to the Mediterranean and the ocean. The country in the neighbourhood of the sea, might almost be considered an African zone, it is marked by the presence of the banana, the dwarf palm, and the cactus.* The stony places are covered with the caper bush; their numerous and long stems, their purple flowers, like so many tufts or feathers, adorn the rocks and uncultivated lands. A second zone, always verdant and covered with the plants of Sicily and Italy, rises above the last. The myrtle, the orange and lemon tree, the rose laurel, the Agnus castus, the tamarisc and the nerio are most common in this part of the Peninsula. Another and a higher zone is adapted for the vine and different kinds of grain; forests of pine extend above it, to these succeed Alpine plants and heights covered with eternal snow.

Iberian region.

The eastern or Iberian region comprehends from north to south, all the space between Cape Palos and Cape Creux, and from east to west the basin of the Ebro, and the lands situated between the Sierras Molina, Albaracino, Martes, the mountains of Palomera, Orihuela and the Mediterranean. This magnificent portion of the Peninsula, which may be compared to the shores of Ionia and Doris,

* Botanical Geography by Schow. Copenhagen, 1822.

BOOK CXXXVII.

possesses all the plants of Sicily, the Archipelago and the Levant. The olive flourishes every where, the carob tree grows near the lentisc, while the myrtle, the laurel, the fig and the mulberry display their varied foliage; the grape yields a strong wine, but within the same division, as in the last, are situated several zones, which exhibit different kinds of vegetation, from the low valleys to the summits of the Pyrenees.

Lusitanian region.

The Lusitanian region or that of the lower Tagus, extends from north to south, from Cape St. Vincent to Cape Roca; its breadth is determined by the southern branch of the Sierra d'Estremos. It is sheltered against cold winds by the mountains on the north of the Tagus. The lower parts are covered with sandy heaths, but one zone may be distinguished by its groves of orange and olive trees. M. Bory de St. Vincent observed on the coasts, particularly on the south, a vegetation similar in some respects to that of the Atlantic islands. "From the mountains of Cintra and the Semas of Ourem to Cape St. Vincent," says the same writer, "botanists may discover a great many plants, which, it was supposed, were confined to the Açores, Madeira and the Canaries. American plants thrive and multiply easily, some of them might even be considered indigenous, at all events they have banished such as are so in many large districts, where they flourish as well as in their native land."

Gallician region.

The Gallician region or that of the Duero occupies from north to south, the space between Cape Roca and Cape Finistere, it is different from the preceding; the oak and the chesnut abound, but the olive and the orange appear only on the low valleys towards the south of the Duero.

Cantabrian region.

The northern or Cantabrian region comprehends all the country from the sources of the Adour to Cape Finistere; it is intersected by valleys, which incline either from west to east, or from south to north. The downs are not extensive, and all of them are situated near the coasts. The constant or uniform character of the region consists in the absence of the cistus and rose laurel. The orange and the olive are reared with difficulty, and the

same remark is applicable to the vine; but the hills and vallies in this fruitful region are covered with rich crops and verdant meadows. The constant verdure may be attributed to a fertle soil and a humid atmosphere. The apple flourishes in every district, cider is substituted for light wine, so that the country may be considered the Normandy of the Peninsula.

Balearic Islands.

If, as every appearance leads us to believe, Africa and Spain were once united, the Balearic islands must have been part of the Peninsula. They seem to be a continuation of the chain, which terminates at Cape St. Martin; their general direction is from south-west to north-east, they consist of four principal islands, Ivica and fromentera, Majorca and Minorca, but several others of a smaller size are situated near these coasts. Thus around Ivica, may be seen *Dragonera* or the dragons' island, *Conejera* or the Rabbits' island, and *Cabrera* or Goats' island, as well as Esparto, Bebra, Espalmador, Espardella and Tagam. The island of Ayra lies near the southern shores of Minorca; the others may be past over in silence, they are of little or no importance.

Fromentera.

The island of Fromentera is equal to four leagues at its greatest breath, its utmost length does not exceed five. It is believed that it was so called in modern times, from the great quantity of grain which it produces in proportion to its surface. It was the small Pityusa or *Pityusa Minor* of the ancients. Ivica or Ivisa, to the north of the last, may be about twenty-two leagues in circumference; the Romans called it *Ebusus*. It might be inferred from their ancient names, that these islands were once covered with forests.

Majorca.

Majorca or Mallorca is the *Balearis Major* of the ancients; it may be about fifty leagues in circumference. Strabo informs us that the rabbits which the early inhabitants brought to it, multiplied so rapidly that the people were at last obliged to implore the assistance of the Romans to destroy these animals.*

Minorca or Menorca, the ancient *Balearis Minor*, is not

* Book III. ch. 2.

BOOK CXXXVII

less than thirty-eight leagues in circumference, it lies to the east of the last.

Minorca.

The land in these islands is mountainous, their geological formation is everywhere the same. Calcareous rocks are the most common, a fact that may serve to corroborate the opinion concerning their submarine junction with Cape St. Vincent. The heights of the mountains, the rocks and vegetables of the Baleares have been accurately known since the year 1825, the year that a French naturalist visited these islands.* The island of Majorca is the most important; the two principle mountains are the *Puig de Torcella*, and the *Puig Major*.† The two groups, which divide the islands, are formed by calcareous rocks, belonging to lands of lower deposits, such as the rock called *lias* and oolithic limestone. The other minerals are dolomia, porphyry and rocks, which appear to be of igneous origin. Medicinal springs and different specimens of copper ore indicate their mineral wealth, from which the inhabitants have hitherto derived no advantage. Majorca, like the other Baleares, may be distinguished by its arid summits and verdant plains. The carob and the olive trees appear in all their vigour. The first occupies the lowest level, and ascends to the height of 1500 feet; the second thrives on the mountains; it unites with the Aleppo pine, and covers the declivities; but the last, flourishing at the height of six hundred feet above the olive, mingles with the green oak, which grows 300 feet above it. The highest summits are covered with a sort of sesler, *Sesleria soerelna*. The dwarf palms on the stony heights protect with their broad foliage different kinds of cyclamen, ononides and anthyllides. The peasants often set fire to forests of oaks and pines on the mountains, in order to protect a vegetable which they call *carregt* (*Donax tenax*). It diffuses itself over all the vacant space thus produced, and affords in the following year an abundant nourishment for men and

* M. Cambessede, Membre des Societes d'Histore, Naturelle et Philomathique de Paris.

† M. Cambessede took a barometrical measurement of the two mountains; according to him, the first is equal to 4,778 feet in height, and the second to 3,676.

cattle. In vain do the pines and oaks push forth shoots, the carregts keep their ground, and it is not before many years that they yield to the efforts of their gigantic neighbours. The myrtle, the pistachio, the thorny caper bush, the cistus and other shrubs on the stony heights near the mountains of Majorca, indicate the Mediterranean region. The lignous salicornia and the tamarind grow on the marshes near the shore, the vine flourishes on the hills, and the cotton plant is cultivated on the low and humid lands. It is unnecessary to give an account of the vegetable productions in the neighbouring islands, they differ but little from those that are found in Majorca.*

Ancient inhabitants.

The Baleares or Balearides were so called by the Greeks, from the great skill with which the inhabitants used the sling.† According to Pliny, they were also called *Gymnasii*, because they went naked to battle.‡ Their arms were a small buckler, a javelin and three slings of different sizes, one or other of which was used according to the distance of the enemy. Their children were early accustomed to handle the same instrument; it is said that their parents refused to give them food, until they hit a mark at a certain distance.

It has been inferred from the surname of *Gymnasii* or *naked*, that the Greeks and Romans had not often friendly intercourse with these islanders, for it is certain that they wore dresses long before the inhabitants of Italy. Diodorus Siculus mentions a singular custom established amongst them; the "marriage ceremony," says he, "terminates in a feast, but the husband is not permitted to consummate the nuptials, until the bride has granted her favours to all the guests." The Romans conquered the Balearides, not so much to put a stop to the piracies of the islanders, as to deprive the Carthaginians of important stations for the commerce of the Mediterranean. The same people founded *Palma* and *Pollensa* in Majorca, two places which shall be

* Enumeratio plantarum quæ referuntur in insulis Balearibus. Cambussede, 4to. Paris, 1827.

† From the Greek word *ballo*, I throw.

‡ Pliny, Hist. Nat. Lib. III. ch. 5.

BOOK CXXXVII.

afterwards mentioned; the islands formed part of the province *Tarraconensis.*

Origin of the word Spain.

Many conjectures have been formed concerning the origin of the words *Hispania* and *Hesperia*, the ancient names of the Peninsula. It is probable that Hispania comes from the Phenician word *span*, which signifies *concealed*, not an inapplicable name, for at an early period the country was little known to the Phenicians. It has been also said that they called it Spania, from the number of rabbits they observed.* The Greeks called it Hesperia from its western situation, relatively to their own country.† The name of Iberia, which it also bore, seems to have been derived from the name of its early inhabitants. M. Bory de St. Vincent supposes them a colony from the island or continent of Atlantis. Such an assumption, however, is liable to many objections, and it appears to be as probable, as the opinion supported by several Spanish authors, who affirm that the first inhabitants of their country were descended from Tubal, a son of Noah, who landed in Spain twenty-two centuries before the Christian era.

Ancient inhabitants.

The Iberians, according to Herodotus, were divided into six tribes; the *Cynetes*, *Gletes*, *Tartesses*, or *Turdetani*, *Eleusinii*, *Martinii*, and *Celeiani*. Strabo informs us that the Tartesses made great advances in civilization; they applied themselves to literature, they possessed books of poetry, histories of a very ancient date, and laws which, they affirmed, were written six thousand years before his time.‡

Celtiberi.

Diodorus Siculus mentions the invasion of the Celts into Spain. The Iberi made war against them for a long time, but after an obstinate resistance on the part of the natives, the two people entered into an agreement, according to which, they were to possess the country in common, bear the same name, and remain for ever united; such, says

* The double signification of the word *span* (concealed, rabbit), leads to a double interpretation. The Romans adopted the last, as appears from a medal of Adrian, on which Spain is represented by the figure of a woman with a rabbit on her side. See Flores, Medalles de Espania. Tome i. p. 109.

† Hesperia signifies the west or the evening in Greek.

‡ Strabo, Book V. ch. 2.

the same historian, was the origin of the Celtiberi in Spain. These warlike people, continues Diodorus, were equally formidable as cavalry and infantry, for when the horse had broken the enemy's ranks, the men dismounted and fought on foot. Their dress consisted of a *sagum* or coarse woollen mantle; they wore greaves made of hair, an iron helmet adorned with a red feather, a round buckler and a broad two-edged sword of so fine a temper as to pierce through the enemy's armour. Although they boasted of cleanliness both in their nourishment and in their dress, it was not unusual for them to wash their teeth and bodies with urine, a custom which they considered favourable to health. Their habitual drink was a sort of hydromel; wine was brought into the country by foreign merchants. The land was equally distributed, and the harvests were divided among all the citizens; the law punished with death the person who appropriated more than his just share. They were hospitable, nay, they considered it a special favour to entertain a stranger; being convinced that the presence of a foreigner called down the protection of the gods on the family that received him. They sacrificed human victims to their divinities, and the priests pretended to read future events in the palpitating entrails.* At every full moon, says Strabo, they celebrated the festival of a god without a name; from this circumstance, their religion has been considered a corrupt deism.

Earliest colonies.

The Phenicians were the first people who established colonies on the coasts of Spain; Tartessus was perhaps the most ancient; at a later period, they founded Gades, now Cadiz on the isle of Leon. They carried on there a very lucrative trade, in as much as it was unknown to other nations; but in time, the Rhodians, the Samians, the Phocians and other Greeks established factories on different parts of the coast.

Carthage had been founded by the Phenicians; but the inhabitants, regardless of their connexion with that people, took possession of the Phenician stations, and conquered the whole of maritime Spain. The government of these

* Diodorus, Book V. ch. 31.

BOOK CXXXVII.

republicans was still less supportable; the Carthaginians were unable to form any friendly intercourse with the Spaniards in the interior; their rapine and cruelty excited the indignation of the natives.

Spain, a Roman province.

The ruin of Carthage paved the way to new invaders, and Spain was considered a Roman province two centuries before the Christian era. Those who had been the allies, became the masters of the Spaniards, and the manners, customs and even language of the conquerors were introduced into the Peninsula. But Rome paid dear for her conquest; the north or the present Old Castille, Arragon and Catalonia were constantly in a state of revolt; the mountaineers shook off the yoke, and it was not before the reign of Augustus that the country was wholly subdued. The Peninsula was then divided into three provinces, *Lusitania, Betica* and *Tarraconensis.*

Lusitania.

The Lusitanian province or the western region was separated on the north from Tarraconensis by the Duero, above its confluence with the Tormes; the two most eastern points within its limits were *Libora* on the Tagus, and *Augustobriga.* The course of the Guadiana served as a boundary from the mountains of Toledo to the Mediterranean. Thus, it comprehended the greater part of Portugal, and all Estremadura. *Emerita Augusta,* the present Merida, was the capital of the province.

Betica.

Betica was separated from Lusitania by the Guadiana, and from Tarraconensis by a line extending from the neighbourhood of Civdad-Real to the Rio-Almanzar; it formed the most southern portion of the Peninsula; *Corduba* was its capital.

Tarraconensis.

All the rest of Spain was included in the province of Tarraconensis; *Galloecia* on the north-west, now Gallicia, *Carthaginensis,* now the kingdom of Murcia, and the Balearic islands were contained in it.

The same province was also called *Hispania Citerior,* while the two others formed *Hispania Ulterior.*

Inhabitants of Lusitania.

The province of Lusitania was partly peopled by the *Cynetes* or *Cinesii,* the earliest inhabitants of Algarve. The Celtisi or Celtes-Glebas possessed the land between the Guadiana and the Tagus. The country round the mountains of

Gredos belonged to the *Vettones*, a people that passed from a state of inactivity and repose to the vicissitudes and hardships of war. The Lusitani, a nation of freebooters, were settled in the middle of Estremadura, they were distinguished by their activity and patience of fatigue; their food was flour and sweet acorns, beer was their common beverage. They were swift in the race; they had a martial dance, which the men danced, while they advanced to battle.*

Inhabitants of Betica.

The part of Betica near the Mediterranean, was peopled by the *Bastuli* or, as they were also called, the *Pœni*. The *Turduli* inhabited the shores of the ocean, near the mouths of the Bœtis. The *Bœturi* dwelt on the Mariani mountains, and the *Turdetani* inhabited the southern declivities of the Sierra d'Aracena. The last people, more enlightened than any other in Betica, were skilled in different kinds of industry long before their neighbours. When the Phenicians arrived on their coast, silver was so common amongst them, that their ordinary utensils were made of it. What was afterwards done by the Spaniards in America, was then done by the Phenicians in Spain, they exchanged iron and other articles of little value for silver; nay, if ancient authors can be credited, they not only loaded their ships with the same metal, but if their anchors at any time gave way, others of silver were used in their place.

Inhabitants of Tarraconensis.

The people in *Gallœcia*, a subdivision of *Tarraconensis*, were the *Artabri*, who derived their name from Cape *Artabrum*, now Cape Finistere, the *Bracari*, whose chief town was *Bracara*, the present *Braga*, and lastly the *Lucences*, *Lugo* was the capital of their country. These tribes and some others formed the nation of the *Calaici* or *Gallœci*, who, according to the ancients, had no religious notions. The Asturi, now the Asturians, inhabited the banks of the Asturis or the country on the east of the Gallœcian mountains. *Asturica Augusta* was their capital. The *Vacceï*, the least barbarous of the Celtiberians, cultivated the country on the east of the Asturi. The fierce *Cantabri* occupied the coasts of old Castille; it was customary for two to mount

* Strabo, Book III. chap. 3.

BOOK CXXXVII.

on the same horse, when they went to battle. The *Carites* or *Caristi* inhabited part of Biscay on the same declivities of the Pyrenees; on the southern sides, the *Turmodiges* and the *Murbogii* were settled in the province of *Burgos*. Their neighbours on the east, were the *Autrigones* in Alava, the *Berones* in Rioja, and the *Varduli* in Guipuscoa. The *Vascones* or *Navarrenses*, the ancestors of the present Gascons, were settled on the north of the Ebro. The *Jaccetani* were scattered on the Pyrenean declivities of Arragon. The brave Ilergetes resided in the country round Lerida, and the *Vescitani*, between the *Vascones* and *Ilergetes*. As to the country on the east of these tribes, the whole of Catalonia was peopled by the *Cerretani*, *Indigetes*, *Castellani*, the *Ausetani*, *Saletani* and *Cosetani*. The lands on the south of the Ebro were inhabited by the *Arevaci* and *Pelendones*, the former were so called from the river *Areva*; they were settled in the neighbourhood of Arevola, and in the province of Segovia; the latter possessed the high plains of Soria and Moncayo. The space between the mountains of Albarracino and the river, was peopled by the *Edetani*, one of the most powerful tribes in Spain. The *Ilercavones*, who were not less formidable, inhabited an extensive district between the Upper Jucar and the lower Ebro. The territory of the *Suessetani*, between the Ebro and the Guadalaviar, extended to the shores of the Mediterranean. The country of the Carpetani, or the space from the Guadiana to the Somo-Sierra, forms at present the archiepiscopal see of Toledo. The people on the south of the last, were the *Oretani*, between the Guadiana and the Mariani mountains, and the Olcades, a small tribe, near the confluence of the Gabriel and the Jucar. *Carthaginensis*, a subdivision of Tarraconensis, was inhabited by two tribes;—the Bastetani in the centre of Murcia, who often made incursions into Betica, and the *Contestani*, who possessed the two banks of the Segura, near the shores of the Mediterranean from Cape Palos to the Jucar.

Manners of the ancient Spaniards.

In time of peace, says Diodorus Siculus, the *Iberi* and *Lusitani* amused themselves in a lively and light dance, which requires much activity. The ancient writer alludes perhaps to the *fandango*, a dance of which the origin is un-

known. An assembly, composed of old Celtiberians was held every year, it was part of their duty to examine what the women had made with their own hands within the twelve-month, and to her, whose work the assembly thought the best, a reward was given. An ancient author* mentions that singuar custom, and adds that corpulency was considered a reproach by the same people; for in order to preserve their bodies light and active, the men were measured every year by a cincture of a certain breadth, and some sort of punishment was inflicted on those who had become too large. The age of marriage was fixed by law; the girls chose their husbands among the young warriors, and the best means of obtaining the preference, was to present the fair one with the head of an enemy slain in battle.

Dress.

Strabo enters into some details concerning the dress of the ancient Spaniards. The Lusitani covered themselves with black mantles, because their sheep were mostly of that colour. The Celtiberian women wore iron collars with rods of the same metal rising behind, and bent in front; to these rods was attached the veil, their usual ornament. Others wore a sort of broad turban, and some twisted their hair round a small ring about a foot above the head, and from the ring was appended a black veil. Lastly, a shining forehead was considered a great beauty; on that account, they pulled out their hair, and rubbed their brows with oil.†

Spain in the middle ages.

The different tribes were confounded while the Romans oppressed the country, but in the beginning of the fifth century, the Sueves, Vandals and Visigoths invaded the Peninsula, and mixing with the Celts and Iberians, produced the different races, which the physiologist still observes in Spain. The first people or the Sueves descended the Duero under the conduct of Ermeric, and chose Braga for the capital of their kingdom. Genseric led his Vandals to the centre of the Peninsula, and fixed his residence at Toledo; but fifteen years had not elapsed after the settlement of the barbarous horde, when Theodoric, con-

* Nicholas of Damas. See his fragments collected by Constantine Porphyrogenetes.

† Strabo, Book III. ch. 2 and 3.

BOOK CXXXVII.

quered by Clovis, abandoned Toulouse, penetrated into Spain, took Toledo, and compelled the Vandals to fly into Africa. During the short period that the Vandals remained in the country, the ancient province of Betica was called Vandalousia, and it bears the name of Andalousia to this day. But the Visigoths soon extended their conquest, and all the country from the Ebro to the Straits of Gibraltar, submitted to them. The ancient Celtiberians, who had so long resisted the Romans, made then no struggle for liberty or independence, they yielded without resistance to their new masters. Powers and privileges were the portion of the Gothic race, and the title of *hijo del Goda*, or the son of the Goth, which the Spaniards changed into *hidalgo*, became the title of a noble or a free and powerful man among a people of slaves. A number of petty and almost independent states were formed by the chiefs of the conquering tribes; but the barons or free men acknowledged a liege lord. Spain and Portugal were thus divided, and the feudal system was thus established. Among the Visigoths, however, the crown was not hereditary, or at least the law of regular succession was often set at defiance by usurpers. The sovereign authority was limited by the assemblies of the great vassals, some of whom were very powerful; indeed the Count Julian to avenge himself on King Roderic for an outrage committed on his daughter, delivered Spain to the Mahometan yoke.

Spain under the Moors.

After the country had submitted for three centuries to the Visigoths, it was subdued by the Arabs in the year 712. A single engagement, the battle fought at Xeres on the left bank of the Guadalete, was sufficient to secure the conquest. The settlement of the Moors in the Peninsula may be considered one of the events which illustrate the superiority of a well informed and polished people over a nation divided by factions, and degraded by the feudal system. Cordova was chosen as the capital of their empire; rendered confident by success, they devoted themselves to the sciences, cultivated letters and the fine arts, embellished Cordova, Grenada and other towns with their elegant mosques, governed the vanquished with mildness and justice, and no where violated the laws of a wise toleration.

By such means, they thought to strengthen their empire, while a poor but intrepid people in the mountains of Asturia, were silently preparing a way for the independence of their country. *Pelagio* or *Pelayo*, a simple shepherd, whom some writers call a prince or a king, because he showed himself worthy of being one, founded the kingdom of Oviedo, which he extended by his conquests to the Duero, and afterwards to the chain of Guadarrama. The same kingdom was divided by its founder into two, those of Leon and the Asturias. The Christians were encouraged by his example; whilst they, to preserve themselves, concentrated their forces, the lieutenants of the caliphs were divided by ambition, and weakened by civil discord. They were styled kings of Cordova, Seville, Valencia and Grenada, but they were not united, and separately, they were unable to resist the torrent that threatened to destroy them. From the year 1085, the Moors began to lose their provinces in Spain, and on the second of January 1469, Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Castille made their triumphant entry into Grenada, the last bulwark of the Mussulmans.

Conquest of the kingdom of Grenada.

The kingdom of Grenada lost with its ancient masters, its wealth and power. It was the finest conquest of the Spaniards, but fanaticism transformed it into a desolate and wretched province. The Mahometan population, the most enlightened, industrious and wealthy in the Peninsula, were reduced to slavery. It was forgotten that the Moors had respected in the time of their prosperity, the laws and the religion of the vanquished. The fires of the Inquisition were kindled by the same men who preached union and brotherly love. According to the terms of the capitulation, concluded with the last king of Grenada, no one was to be punished for his religious belief; but the violation of treaties made with infidels, was considered an act of piety by the Holy Office. The conquered, almost reduced to despair, were easily excited to revolt. Unable to resist, great numbers received baptism, and the wealthiest on paying a stipulated sum, obtained permission to pass into Africa. By this measure, considerable sums flowed into the royal treasury, but immense capitals were for ever taken away from Spain.

BOOK CXXXVII.

Not satisfied with its triumph, the inquisition pretended that the conversion of the Mussulmans was not real, and the latter could only escape from death by a new and successful revolt. Having fled for shelter to the mountains, they called to their assistance their brethren in Africa, but before any aid could be had from that quarter, a Moorish sovereign was proclaimed, conquered and beheaded. The Spanish government, emboldened by the weakness of the rebels, refused their submission, and they were banished from the kingdom, conformably to a decree of Philip the Third.

Expulsion of the Moors.

Their expulsion was an act of state policy, of which the consequences were long fatal to the arts, agriculture and commerce of Spain. A Spanish writer describes the kingdom of Grenada about the beginning of the sixteenth century. "A short time after the conquest of Ferdinand, that rich province contained seventy fortified towns, and Grenada alone was peopled by two hundred thousand inhabitants.* The imposts and produce of the mines in the same part of the Peninsula, were enormous comparatively with what they are at present. The single tax on silk produced a revenue of 181,500 gold ducats.† It is humiliating to the Spaniards, says an English writer, that the noblest monuments in their country, are those which a hateful race of conquerors left behind them.‡

* Zurita, Annals of Arragon.

† Voyage pittoresque et historique de l'Espagne, by Al. de Laporide, folio edition, tom. ii.

‡ Hallam's Middle Ages.

BOOK CXXXVIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Spanish Peninsula. Kingdom of Portugal and Algarva.

BOOK CXXXVIII.

General remarks.

It may not perhaps be deemed according to rule, to commence the political account of the Peninsula, with that of a kingdom so insignificant as Portugal; but it should be recollected that the same method has been already followed,* and in a historical point of view, it merits the priority, for the kings of Portugal were freed from the Saracens, and in possession of their present limits, long before Spain had shaken off the Mahometan yoke. Henry of Burgundy was created count of *Portocale*, because he assisted the king of Castille in his expeditions against the Moors. About the commencement of the twelfth century, Alphonso Henriquez, the son of the same Henry received from his soldiers the title of king, after having killed with his own hand five Mussulman princes, whose heads occupy a prominent place in the armorial bearings of Portugal.† It was about the

* M. Bory de St. Vincent.

† Some authors derived the name of Portugal from *Porto-Gallo* (the French port,) a town in which Henry of Burgundy and his companions resided, and which is now called Oporto or Porta. Other writers affirm that there was an ancient burgh named *Calé* now *Gaya* at the mouth of the Duero; in course of time, a harbour was built opposite to Calé, it received the name of *Portucalé*, (the port of Calé,) and became the town of Porto, of which *Calé* or *Goya* forms the suburbs. It is from the word Portucalé that the name of *Portucalia* was first applied to the present provinces of Mino and Tra-os-Montes, and afterwards to the whole kingdom. The most ancient document in which the name of Portugal occurs, bears the date of the year 1069; it is carefully preserved in the monastery of Aroun. See the Historical Geography of Gaëtano de Lima, tom. i. p. 86.

BOOK CXXXVIII.

middle of the following century, that Alphonso the Third took Algarve from the Saracens. Free in a land which his courage had delivered from foreign oppression, it was during the same heroic age that the Portuguese emerged from the darkness of barbarism, and betook themselves to the sciences, to navigation, agriculture and trade; they led the way in the career of those memorable discoveries that extended the circle of European communication with Asia and Africa, afterwards with a vast continent, of which the genius of Columbus had prognosticated the existence. In the annals of the middle ages, no nation holds a greater rank than the one that during two centuries, conquered many islands, gave laws on the banks of the Ganges, founded numerous towns and factories in India, covered every sea with its ships, and shared with Spain vast territories, bounded according to the decrees or caprice of a Roman pontiff. If Portugal was invaded by Philip the Second, when the dynasty of Avis became extinct, if it remained sixty years subject to Spain; the colonies it lost during the same period, roused the spirit of the nation, and gave rise in 1640 to a conspiracy, by which the independence of the country was secured, and the crown conferred on a duke of Braganza, the founder of the reigning family. Although comparatively insignificant in point of population, it has shown more than once how much the strength of a country may be increased by the public spirit of the inhabitants. Recollecting its past glory, it may be expected that, under an enlightened government and a wise policy, it may again occupy no mean station among the kingdoms of Europe.

Position, political limits.

The kingdom of Portugal extends from north to south, between the forty-second and thirty-seventh parallel, and from east to west, between the ninth and eleventh degrees of longitude. Its political limits on the north are Gallicia and part of the province of Zamora; the boundaries on the east are the provinces of Salamanca, Estremadura and the kingdom of Seville.

Natural limits.

The natural limits of the same country are the course of the Mino, the mountains of Penagache and Segondera on the north; on the east, the Duero, the Turon, the Her-

jas, part of the Tagus, the Sever, a portion of the Guadiana, the Chandza, and the lower Guadiana from its junction with the Chandza to its embouchure; the ocean forms the southern and western confines of the kingdom. Its greatest length from north to south is equal to a hundred and twenty-five leagues,* and its greatest breadth from east to west may be about fifty. The superficies amounts to four thousand nine hundred and twenty square leagues,† and the population to three million, three hundred and forty thousand inhabitants.

Climate.

As Portugal is very narrow from north to south, it might be thought that the climate throughout the kingdom was almost uniform; but the inequalities in the soil, the direction of the valleys, and the greater or less proximity of the ocean, have a considerable influence on the temperature. It is sufficient to travel a few leagues to transport oneself from the excessive heat of Lisbon to the cold of Germany. Although the temperature diminishes gradually from the coast to the highest summits, still the laws of increase or diminution are modified by several local causes. Thus, in a high country, in the province of Tras-os-Montes, the heat is excessive during summer, and more so in the neighbourhood of Lamego than any where else, for the hills of slate near the town, incline to the south, and the Marao forms a barrier against the north wind. Besides, the distance from the sea is so great that the same wind passes with difficulty into the country; therefore, the confined situation of the valley, and arid slate hills exposed to the sun's rays, render it perhaps the warmest part of Portugal in the summer season.‡

Seasons and temperature.

The lower districts in the same kingdom, possessing the advantages of a very short winter, may be said to have a double spring. The first begins in February, the succeed-

* The league mentioned in this work, is equal to the twenty-fifth part of a degree.

† Geographers differ as to the extent of surface; M. Bory de St. Vincent makes it equal to 3,437 1-4 square leagues—Cheling to 1,642 German square miles, or 4,566 square leagues.—Franzini to 28,350 miles of sixty to the degree.

The last measurement has been adopted by Balbi, it seems to be the most correct.

‡ Essai Statisque sur le Royaume de Portugal et d'Algarve by Adrian Balbi.

ing months are sometimes cold and rainy, at other times dry and warm. The crops are reaped in June, and by the end of July the plains are scorched, the grass becomes yellow, the trees wither, and it requires much labour and care to preserve esculent vegetables. While the heat along the coast is often more excessive than in the torrid zone; the temperature of the higher regions is cool and mild.* The low country is adorned with a second vegetation about the end of September or beginning of October. The plants of spring succeed suddenly those of autumn, the meadows are covered with new grass, the trees seem to have resumed their foliage, and the orange groves, then in flower, give to the month of October, all the charms of the finest spring. Winter commences at the end of November, and continues until the month of February; it is the season of much rain and violent hurricanes; the torrents then make a passage for themselves to the rivers, the latter overflow their banks, and the ordinary communications between different parts of the kingdom are interrupted. But the cold is sufficiently keen in the mountains of Tras-os-Montes beyond the Duero, and also on the summits of the Sierras Estrella, Mames and Estremos; although the snow accumulates, the rivers are seldom frozen. The Portuguese affirm that snow lies during the greatest heat of summer on the summit of the Gaviarra in the province of Mino, on some cavities of the Marao, and on the tops of the Estrella. But snow does not remain more than a month on the other mountains, and it is altogether unknown in the kingdom of Algarve. The north wind prevails in winter in the provinces of Tras-os-Montes and Entre Duero-and-Mino, and the west wind in those of Beira, Estremadura and Alentejo during the same season. The greatest cold is generally accompanied with the east wind, which passes over the snowy summits of Castille. In the other seasons, and particularly in summer, the north-west wind blows in the morning, and the south-west in the afternoon.

According to a well informed observer,† the winter at

* The difference of temperature between the coasts and the high country is about ten degrees of Fahrenheit, or four and a half of Reaumur.

† Colonel Franzini, his work is cited by Balbi.

Climate of Lisbon and the provinces.

Lisbon and on the basin near the mouth of the Tagus, continues during December, January, February, and March; April and May are the two months of spring; the summer lasts from June to the end of September, and autumn from October to the end of November. The basin of the Mondego in the neighbourhood of Coimbra, is more temperate than Lisbon, but it is also more humid and less salubrious. The climate of Oporto and Penafiel is equally humid, the winters are colder and more nebulous, and the summers on the contrary are very warm. The winters are always mild in the kingdom of Algarve; the meadows are always enamelled with flowers during the months of July, August and September. If October be a rainy month, it is not uncommon to see the fruit trees flourish anew in November. December and January are the wettest months, and abundant rains in April are the signs of a plentiful harvest. A remarkable fact in the history of atmospheric phenomena may be mentioned; in the month of May the wind follows generally the direction of the sun, in other words, it blows from the east at sunrise, from the south at mid-day, from the north-west in the evening, and from the north during the night.

Storms.

Although Portugal be a mountainous country, it is seldom exposed to violent storms, thunder is only heard during the autumn and winter.

Salubrity of Portugal

Having entered into sufficient details concerning the temperature, a few remarks may be offered on the salubrity of the climate. Portugal is justly celebrated on this account in England, and many examples of longevity prove that the opinion, unlike many of the same nature, is not founded on prejudice. Among the places noted for their salubrity are Braga, Ponte de Lima, and almost all the others in the province of Mino. Mirandella, Villa-Pouca, Montalegre, and several towns in Tras-os-Tontes are equally healthy. The same remark is applicable to the upper valley of the Mondego in the centre of the kingdom, or to the country between Guarda and the Ponte di Marcella. Ourem, Loures and Lisbon in Estremadura, Beja, Evora and Ourique in Alen-Tejo, Monchique, Faro and Tavira in Algarve, have been commended for the same rea-

BOOK CXXXVIII

son by the Portuguese. But many parts of the country, particularly such as are humid and marshy, are considered unwholesome. The inhabitants of Quarteira, Lagos, Silves and San Marcos d'Assera in Algarve, as well as those of Silveiras and Monte-Moro-Novo in Alen-Tejo, are subject to different maladies, attributable to local causes. Pezzo-de Regan, Chaves, Braganza and Miranda in Tras-os-Montes possess a sad celebrity. The same may be said of Almeirim in Estremadura, and almost all the southern bank of the Tagus between the Rio-Almanzor and the country near Lisbon, of the southern declivities on the Estrella, and the lands watered by the Mondego from Coimbra to Figuerra in the province of Beira.

Diseases.

Some diseases are most prevalent in particular situations; thus at Lisbon, apoplexy, paralysis, liver and breast complaints are more common than in other parts of the country, and the variations of temperature occasion different sorts of fevers, and other diseases produced by suppressed perspiration. The people in the northern provinces are subject to rheumatism and pleurisy, and the salt marshes on the coast produce obstructions and dropsy. A sort of leprosy attacks the working classes in Beira and intermittent fevers, dropsy and anthrax are not unfrequent in Alen-Tejo; lastly, the inhabitants of Algarve are exposed to gastric fevers, and to a certain inflammation known by the name of *mal de Bariga*, which medical men attribute to the great quantity of unripe figs that constitute the principal food of the lower orders during three or four months in the year.*

Earthquakes.

The frequency of earthquakes may be considered the greatest calamity to which the southern part of Portugal is exposed; a year seldom passes away without the recurrence of several shocks, and since the eleventh century Lisbon has been fifteen times more or less injured. It has been observed that they happen in the months of October and April, and particularly after the first rains that succeed the heat and droughts. These facts are important, inasmuch as they prove an invisible relation between the at-

* Balbi, Essai Statistique.

mospheric phenomena and those taking place in the depths of the earth. The data hitherto collected concerning volcanoes and the shocks which they produce, are extremely vague; but enough is known to prove that the subterranean communications in which they are developed, extend to a great distance; the famous earthquake that overturned Lisbon in 1755, was felt almost at the same instant in Africa, Ireland and America.

Mineral wealth.

It would be incorrect to estimate the mineral wealth of Portugal from the inconsiderable profits gained by the inhabitants; a more accurate notion of its value and importance may be inferred from the facts recently published by M. Balbi. Few countries in Europe have a greater number of mineral springs: there are ten in the province of Mino, six in Tras-os-Montes, seventeen in Beira, twelve in Estremadura, nine in Alen-Tejo, and two in Algarva. These are either gaseous, saline, sulphureous, ferruginous or merely warm; all of them are of a temperature more or less elevated. The Carthaginians obtained their metals from the same country; it possesses mines of gold, silver, iron, lead and tin; but it is now dependent on foreigners for these substances, which, if well worked, might form a lucrative branch of exportation. The coal mines are for the most part neglected, the salt marshes are only worked with profit; the number of workmen employed in them, thirty years ago, was equal to five thousand four hundred, and the annual quantity of salt to 384,000 casks; but much less of the same article is now exported; the annual produce does not exceed 140,000 casks, of which the value in English money may be estimated at L.100,000.

Agriculture.

Agriculture is in a less advanced state than in most of the corn countries in Europe; a quantity sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants is not produced in the kingdom; on an average, 150,000 measures of grain are imported every year, and it costs more than L.1,500,000. It may be added too, that only a sixth part of the imported grain is brought from the Portuguese colonies. M. Balbi, however, believes that enough is produced in ordinary years to maintain the inhabitants; he attributes the necessity of exportation to the consumption at Lisbon, into which place, from

BOOK CXXXVIII

the want of roads, supplies cannot be brought from the interior. The same cause is not without its influence on the agriculture of the country; the freedom of the port at Lisbon serves only to aggravate the evil, in as much as foreign corn is thus attracted into the kingdom. Other causes retard the development of agricultural industry; it may be sufficient to mention the heavy imposts to which the peasantry are subject, the great number of privileged estates belonging to the crown, the nobility, the church and different towns, the want of hands occasioned by the military service, which falls principally on the inhabitants of great towns, and also a common custom among the nobility, that of not living on their estates, but of letting them on long leases to farmers, who sublet them to labourers; lastly, the want of communications, occasioned by the bad state of the roads. Government has endeavoured to put an end to all these abuses; but civil divisions and an impoverished treasury have hitherto prevented the proposed improvements.

Cattle.

The wretched state of agriculture must have necessarily some effect both on the number and quality of the cattle, and the same effect operates in its turn on the culture of the soil. The days on which the people abstain from butcher meat, make up nearly a third part of the year; hence they are obliged to receive annually from foreigners 280,000 hundred weights of dried or salted fish, an article which costs them every year about L.415,000. The bad quality of the grass, and the husbandman is not anxious to improve it, the little profit he derives from milk, being unable to convert it into butter or cheese, account sufficiently for the dependence of Portugal on her neighbours.* The oil obtained from its neglected olives is so ill made that it cannot be a source of profit; indeed, if the quantity of the same article which is imported, be compared with the quantity exported, it may be found that the former exceeds the latter in value by L.5000. Under better management, Portugal could not only supply her colonies but several foreign countries with oil.

The provinces of Mino, Tras-os-Montes and Beira are

* Salt butter and cheese are imported from Holland and England.

fruitful, but chiefly in grain. The greater part of Estremadura and Algarva remains uncultivated; the principal products of the last province consist in figs and almonds. Pears and apples are cultivated in the other parts of the country, chestnuts abound everywhere, and those of Colares and Portaleyre are as much extolled as the figs of Almada. Estremadura is enriched by the sale of oranges and lemons, which are prized in every country. The wines of Portugal are not less celebrated, that of the upper Duero is well known in England by the name of port; the others are the muscadine wines of Carcavelos, Setubal, and the white wines of Algarva. Portugal exports annually almonds and dried figs, of which the ordinary value may be about L.21,000, oranges to the amount of L.84,000, and 47,000 pipes of wine, worth more than L.1,830,000.

Animals.

It has excited surprise that the country people understand so little about rearing silk worms and bees; if these branches of rural economy were better known, the inhabitants might add considerably to their wealth. But the other products of the animal kingdom are equally neglected; the sheep might be much improved, the flocks are numerous, particularly in the province of Beira, from which they are driven in the winter season into Alen-Tejo. The wool, indeed, is less valuable than that of Spain, still it is purchased by strangers, but the quantity exported does not yield more than L.17,000. The horses are inferior to those of Castille and Andalusia, although small, they are light and well made; it requires only a moderate degree of care to improve the breed, and to increase the number, which at present is very inconsiderable. The mules are not numerous, but of a good kind, large, strong and docile.

Wild animals.

Wolves haunt the forests and the mountains, and the wild cat frequents the desert lands. Wild goats, although less common than formerly, are not unfrequently seen in the Serra of Geres. The stag, the roe and the wild boar appear sometimes in the woods; hares are rare, and rabbits, less numerous than in Spain. According to an author, on whose accuracy we rely,* the insects of northern Africa

* Essai Statistique by A. Balbi.

BOOK CXXXVIII

are found on the heaths, the butterflies, common to the south of France, on the sides of the Estrella, and the scarab of the north on the heights of Tras-os-Montes. Vipers and other reptiles are concealed in the mountains; it is not uncommon to observe in the fields, nay, even in the houses, the Mauritanian cordylus, an animal which the Portuguese abhor, attributing to it qualities that it does not possess, and not appreciating the services it renders by destroying many hurtful insects.

Fish.

The rivers and coasts abound in fish of every sort; shads, eels, sardel, soles and flounders are taken in great plenty; some of the other kinds are the *Muroena ophis*, the *Scomber pelamis* and the *Xiphias*. From such abundance Portugal might derive its principal wealth, but government has neglected these important fishings. Three centuries ago Portuguese fishermen competed with the Dutch on the shores of Newfoundland, but at present they can hardly explore their own coasts. Although their trade requires a considerable outlay, although the taxes on the produce of their industry are excessive, in short, although poor and wretched, their number amounted some years ago to more than 18,000: but many, it is said, unable to live in their own land, seek the means of subsistence in the American or English navy.

Religion.

Different writers have affirmed that the Portuguese are degraded by ignorance and superstition. A few remarks on the religion, manners and literature of the people, may serve perhaps to dissipate errors which have been often repeated. Of late years greater toleration has been shown in Portugal, as well as in most states under the influence of European civilization. Catholicism is the established religion, but the others are tolerated. The principles published by the Cortes in 1821, have effected this happy change; the tribunal of the inquisition was then abolished, which derived indeed no support from public opinion. The number of ecclesiastics was greatly exaggerated by the geographers of the last century, and writers of the first merit have believed and repeated their blunders.* It might be proved,

* In the article Portugal, in the *Dictionnaire d'Economie Politique de l'Encyclopedie Methodique*, the number of ecclesiastics is said to exceed 300,000 individuals.

however, by correct data, published many years ago, and since confirmed by more recent details, that the total number of those in holy orders, including the members of the secular clergy, as well as the persons of both sexes in the monasteries, cannot be more than 29,000 individuals.* The higher clergy consist of three archbishops and thirteen bishops. The archbishop of Braganza possesses the highest dignity, he is styled patriarch and primate, titles which were created in 1716. If some writers are to be believed, the clergy are not irreproachable, but on the contrary, shamefully corrupt. It appears, however, that within a period of twenty years, the manners of the people have been improved, and the national character of the Portuguese has in some respects been changed by frequent communications with foreigners. They are no longer the same people that violated the most sacred moral obligations, and observed punctiliously the ceremonies of religion. The soldiers are no longer like those, who in the war of the Succession, refused to march until St. Antony, the patron of Lisbon was appointed their general by Don Pedro, the king. The Portuguese are still superstitious, but not fa-

Bourgoin, in his Nouveau Voyage en Espagne, (Paris 1797, 3 vols. 8vo.) and Dumourier in the Etat present du Portugal, estimate the number in holy orders at 200,000.

M. de Laborde made the number amount in 1808, to 280,000.

M. Bory de St. Vincent, in his Guide du Voyageur en Espagne, supposes them equal to more than 200,000.

* The above number, the result of M. Balbi's calculation in the Statistique du Portugal is not below the truth, and we believe indeed that its tendency is to diminish rather than to remain stationary. It is remarkable, then, that the same mistake has been so often committed, more particularly as from the number of convents, the number of their inmates can be easily calculated. In the year 1790, according to the geography of Stein, there were 418 convents for men, and 108 for women. It is known that the mean number of persons for each convent is sixteen, therefore it may be easily shown that in the same year the total number of individuals in all the convents did not exceed 8416. But the convents have been since reduced to 363; thus there are only now in Portugal 5808 monks and nuns. If the number of those employed in the hospitals be estimated at 100, and it is not more, the result will be 5908. Portugal contains about 4054 parishes; supposing five priests for each parish, the number throughout the kingdom amounts to 20,270, and together with the inhabitants of the convents to 26,178. Thus it appears we have rather exceeded than underrated their total number in assuming it equal to 29,000.

BOOK CXXXVIII

natical. Docile to the voice of their priests, they tolerated the inquisition, but condemned the excesses of that revolting tribunal. The mildness or apathy of the people is apparent even in political commotions; their politeness extends from the highest to the lowest orders of society; unlike the Spaniards, they are friendly disposed towards strangers, nor is it in that respect only they resemble the French, their vivacity is almost as great. The Portuguese have been accused of indolence and vain-glory; the peasants in Estremadura and Alen-Tejo, are indeed slothful and lazy, but if the people in all the provinces boast of their nation, it may be attributed to their own ignorance and to the important part which their ancestors acted on the theatre of the world. It has been frequently asserted since the time of Link,* that the Portuguese are perfidious and vindictive. There is either something worse than exaggeration in the assertion, or the people are much changed. Although it may be just to condemn them for their faults, it is not right to conceal their good qualities; they are for the most part much attached to their native land, disinterested in their friendships, and faithful in their attachments. According to M. Balbi, an impartial and judicious observer, the people in the province of Mino are shrewd and industrious, but impetuous and easily excited; the inhabitants of Tras-os-Montes are simple, brave and active; those in Beira are more laborious, but less polished than the natives of Estremadura: the Algarvians on the other hand are the most lively people in Portugal.

The portrait of the Portuguese drawn by Du Chatelet,† and copied by modern geographers, is any thing but flattering. The people, says that writer, are of a swarthy complexion, their noses are short, their lips thick; now certainly they are not of a swarthy complexion, neither are short noses nor thick lips characteristic features. They have the

* See Bamer kungen aufeiner Reise durch Frankreich, Spanien und vorzuglich. Portugal 1800.

† The work entitled Voyage du duc Du Chatelet en Portugal avec des notes de Bourgoing, (1798, 2 vols. 8vo.) was written by M. Cormartin, a zealous royalist of La Vendee.

complexion of the people in southern Europe, although not of a tall stature, they are in general well made; deformed persons are rarely seen amongst them. The finest and strongest men in the kingdom are those in the provinces of Mino, Tras-os-Montes, and on the mountains of Estrella, they have generally fair complexions and light or chestnut hair; in the other provinces black is the prevailing colour of the hair. Long black hair, a fine complexion, large eyes and white teeth might render the Portuguese the most attractive women, if with the gaiety of the French, they united the dignity of the Spaniards.

Amusements.

The vivacity and warm imagination which distinguish the Portuguese, are probably the causes of their eagerness after pleasure. The theatre, music, dancing, processions, bull fights, in short, whatever can gratify the senses, have to them irresistible charms. Their lively music is not unpleasing to strangers, the popular songs, accompanied with the guitar, are light and graceful, but in most of them the words are too licentious. The national dance or the *Foffa* is so lascivious that every stranger who sees it, must deplore the corruption of the people, and regret to find such exhibitions permitted not only in the country, but in the heart of towns, and even on the stage.

Language.

The Portuguese language, formed from that of the ancient Turdetani and the Latin, was once like other Italic tongues, a barbarous dialect; Arabic words were introduced into it under the domination of the Moors, and afterwards French vocables, when Count Henry of Burgundy settled in Portugal with his comrades. It acquired greater regularity during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; in the sixteenth, that softness and energy were united, which have been so justly admired in the verses of Camoens. Since the same period the Portuguese language has degenerated; the usurpation of the throne by Philip the Second hastened its decline. Despotism checked the flight of genius, and repressed the utterence of generous thoughts, servility substituted the language of flattery for that of truth, thus the sentiments as well as the language of the people were degraded. The Portuguese has not the guttural sounds of the Spanish, it is rich and

BOOK CXXXVIII

sonorous, but the frequency of nasal terminations, and the facility with which the words of other languages may be adopted, weaken its harmony; had not several modern writers proved the contrary, it might be supposed from the last defect, that it was not rich in vocables.*

Literature.

It is a common error to condemn Portuguese literature, because it happens to be little known in Europe. The country has produced distinguished men in many departments of knowledge. Some poets since the time of Camoens are held in no ordinary celebrity by their countrymen; if those who have devoted themselves to the dramatic muse, have been unable to raise the Portuguese theatre from the obscurity in which it languishes, it must be admitted on the other hand, that several Lyric poets are not unworthy of the fame which has been conferred on them. Citizens became legislators during the last political struggles, and although the mass of the people were incapable of enjoying the wise institutions of Don Pedro, still the knowledge diffused among the higher classes must have one day a salutary influence on the destinies of the kingdom. From data, which we believe correct, it appears that more than a hundred works in the various departments of literature and science are published every year in Portugal.† The number is certainly greater than might have been inferred from the intellectual state of the people. There was a time when the liberty of the press, and the interest excited by political questions, increased the number of newspapers to more than thirty.

Fine arts.

The low state of the fine arts may be attributed to the little encouragement afforded either by the wealthy or by government. Music is the only one in which any of the Portuguese have hitherto become eminent. Many facts are not wanting to prove the low state of education among the lower orders; in Spain, indeed, the system of education is much worse; with that exception, however, there is perhaps no other country in Europe where the number of scholars relatively to the schools is so inconsiderable. But the places of education for the children of the rich or pri-

* See Atlas ethnographique du Globe, by Ad. Balbi.
† Essai Statistique du Portugal.

vileged classes may bear a comparison with any in other countries. Scientific instruction is committed to able professors, and the labour of the students is abridged by good elementary works, written in the Portuguese language.

Government.

Since the year 1821, the time in which the form of government was changed, Portugal has more than once excited the attention of Europe. The constitution by which the legislative power was committed to the king and the cortes, must form for a long time an epoch in the history of the country. But a real national representation was no innovation in the state, for the establishment of the cortes dates from the eighth century, or from the foundation of the kingdoms of Leon and Castille, and they are repeatedly mentioned in the earliest times of the Portuguese monarchy. These assemblies, which German or Gothic princes formed round the elective throne, were composed of the great proprietors or barons, to whom the right of conquest gave that of constituting themselves into a national body, and they assumed the prerogative of restraining the power of kings, and confining it within due limits by the refusal of subsidies. With the military nobility, the clergy afterwards united, an order by so much the more powerful, as during the wars against the Moors, the banner of the cross became the banner of independence. The invasion of the Sueves and Visigoths did not destroy in the Spanish Peninsula the duties of those agents whom the Romans appointed in the great towns, for they still exist under the name of *procuradores;* they formed the third class of members that composed the Spanish and Portuguese cortes. These assemblies deliberated on the laws, and regulated the imposts. It was not unusual for them to encroach on the prerogatives of the crown; while the cortes sat at Coimbra in 1387 under the reign of John the First, the deputies of the town being averse to war with Castille, the king informed them that he would conclude a peace, or continue the war according to the advice of the people. Lastly, they exercised an authority which in the present day might be considered revolutionary in some countries, for in a period of 525 years, the Portuguese cortes elected five kings; namely, Alphonso the First, count of Portugal, Alphonso the Third after the de-

BOOK CXXXVIII

position of his brother Sancho the Second by the pope, John the First after the extinction of the lawful branch of the Burgundian dynasty, John the Fourth of Braganza after the expulsion of the Spaniards, and Peter the Second after Alphonso the Sixth was declared incapable of reigning. Had every class of the community been represented in the cortes, and had it been made imperative on the sovereign to convoke such assemblies, the people need not have envied the English constitution; but the kings of Portugal have dispensed with them since the year 1687. Such was the state of the kingdom in 1821, when a new constitution, the work of a new cortes, nominated by electors chosen from all the citizens, established a representative government, equal, nay superior in some respects to any of the same sort in Europe. The constitution was abolished in 1823; three years afterwards, Don Pedro, the emperor of Brazil, ascended the throne of Portugal, and granted his subjects a representative government, more monarchical in its tendency than the former, but of such a nature as to satisfy the enlightened part of the nation.

Having endeavoured to describe the moral and political state of the Portuguese people, it remains for us to mention the principal towns and others which, although inferior in the number of their inhabitants, merit the notice of the traveller or historian. The statistical tables at the end of the present chapter, may enable the reader to estimate the force and resources of the kingdom.

Lisbon.

The port of Lisbon, from the magnificent spectacle which it affords, may be compared to any in Europe; mariners consider it one of the best anchoring places in the world. It is defended by fort Bugio, situated on an island at the mouth of the Tagus, and by fort Juliao on the right bank of the same river. The town rises like an amphitheatre on the right bank, and occupies a space about three leagues in length, and more than one in breadth. The large bay formed by the Tagus, affords only a narrow and dangerous passage for ships; indeed, vessels seldom approach it without being provided with experienced pilots, a precaution rendered necessary by the bar which its waters form against the ocean.

It might be supposed from the sight of this large capital, that it contained many more inhabitants than it really does, but it is well known that the population does not exceed 260,000 souls. It is divided into two towns, the first or the old is formed by many tortuous, narrow and dirty streets, which were not injured during the great calamity in the year 1775; the streets in the new town are broad and straight, and their number is daily increasing. The number of streets in both the towns amounts to 566; there are besides 60 squares, only twelve of which merit the name. The two most remarkable are the *Praca do Commercio*, and the *Praca do Rocio;* the first is bounded on one side by the Tagus, and adorned with fine edifices, such as the treasury, the custom-house, the India-house, the admiralty, the royal library and other buildings that are not yet finished. The other or the *Praca do Rocio*, is smaller than the last; it is situated near the court of the Inquisition, in which are now contained the offices of the different ministers, and the prisons of the holy office. If the royal palace in the suburbs of Ajuda was completed according to its original plan, it might be doubtful that there was another in Europe of so large a size. The king of Portugal possesses two other residences in Lisbon, the palace of *Bemposta*, in which he gives audience, and that of *Necessidades*, now set apart for foreign princes. The other buildings are the naval arsenal, the palace of *Calhariz*, now the place in which the academy of sciences hold their meetings, and the theatre of San Carlos, which in point of size at least, may be compared with the secondary theatres in the Italian towns. The principal churches are the cathedral or *Basilica de Santa Maria*, an old edifice that was repaired after the last earthquake, the church belonging to the convent of Jesus, remarkable for the boldness of its dome, perhaps the finest modern building in Lisbon, and lastly, the church of the martyrs, a monument to the glory of the Portuguese, erected at the place where Alphonso the First defeated the Moors.

Population.

Buildings.

Lisbon possesses several useful institutions, but the first in point of importance is the naval observatory, an establishment which has contributed to the advancement of

BOOK CXXXVIII

celestial physics. Some of the others are the royal naval school, the academies of naval architecture, fortification, artillery and drawing, the school of sculpture, and the college of surgery. We may also mention the commercial school, the royal military college, and an institution dependent on the monastery of *St. Vincent de Fora*, where the ancient and modern languages, geometry, physics and philosophy are taught. There are, besides these, a royal school of physics and drawing, in which the course of instruction lasts five years, and a musical seminary (*Seminario Musical*) for the purpose of promoting composition and also vocal and instrumental music. The seminaries connected with religion are the royal college of St. Patrick, a place of education for Irish missionaries, the royal college of catechumens, founded in 1579 for the instruction of converted infidels in the principles and doctrines of Christianity, St. Antony's and St. Peter's schools for orphans and poor children, and other institutions of the same nature under the direction of the clergy or the different monasteries.

Scientific Institutions

The royal academy of sciences at Lisbon, holds the first rank among the scientific institutions in the kingdom. A society for the encouragement of national industry has lately been established in the town. It possesses also public libraries, a botanical garden, a museum of natural history, and different scientific collections, which are much inferior to others of the same kind in the principal capitals of Europe.

Police.

It is not more than twenty or thirty years that persons were not safe on the streets of Lisbon, murders were committed in open day, and murderers found protection by flying into the sanctuary; at night passengers were stopped by soldiers who demanded charity, and took by force the money which any ventured to refuse. There were then no patroles, no police to check these disorders; now that the best means are employed to ensure the public safety, murders and even thefts have become very rare.

Neighbourhood of Lisbon. Aqueduct of Bemfica.

No edifice in Lisbon can be compared with the aqueduct of Bemfica (*agoas livres*), by which the water that the inhabitants consume, is conveyed into the city. It has been

considered the most magnificent work that has been executed in modern times, and it is not certainly inferior to any ancient work of the same kind. The length of the aqueduct exceeds 56,380 feet, the largest arch is equal to 206 in height, and the opening or breadth to 100. The country round Lisbon is not only agreeable from the fine sites in different directions, historical recollections are connected with it. Oeiras, the country seat given by King Joseph to the Marquis of Pombal, was inhabited by the same monarch in 1775, and the minister availed himself of his temporary residence to change a village-fair into one of a different kind, were the products of Portuguese industry are now exhibited, an ingenious idea, that has been imitated elsewhere, and has excited a salutary emulation in other countries, particularly in France. Cintra is celebrated for the capitulation in virtue of which, the French army left Portugal in 1808. Mafra on the western side of the chain connected with Monte Junto, is remarkable for the convent, church and palace, built by John the Fifth in order to fulfil the vow which he had taken before the birth of his son. These three buildings, the work of a foreign architect, and embellished by painters and sculptors of different nations, form perhaps, the finest edifice in the kingdom. Loires at three leagues from Lisbon, is well known for its plantations, which yield the best oranges in Portugal. Campo Grande is a place of resort for the Portuguese nobility, it stands on a plain surrounded with gardens and trees, where in the summer season, the court and the nobles display their equipages. The different places that have been mentioned, are not privileged towns (*citades*), but burghs or small towns without municipalities (*villas*).

Other Towns.

Few other towns of any importance are situated in the rest of Estremadura. *Leiria*, however may be mentioned, it is not far from the palace of King Denys, on whom the Portuguese confered the title of Great. The convent built by John the First, a noble monument of Normano-Gothic architecture, serves to adorn the burgh of Batalha; within the same building may be seen the mausoleum of its founder, and several dirty chapels destined for the sepul-

BOOK CXXXVIII

chres of kings. The large burgh of Santarem built on a hill, and defended by an old fortress, was long the residence of the Portuguese sovereigns. Lastly, Setubal, although it does not possess the rank of a city, may be considered an important town. Some antiquaries suppose that *Troja*, a headland at a short distance from the mouth of the Sado, where several remains of antiquity have been discovered, was the site of a Phenician colony.

Province of Beira. Coimbra.

Coimbra is situated in the province of Beira, on a hill which commands the Mondego. The interior of the town may be said to be as dismal as the neighbouring country is agreeable. It was a place of considerable importance under the Romans, the Alani and the Moors; it is the capital of the province, the public buildings, the number of useful institutions, together with the celebrity of the university, render it not unworthy of its title. The small town of Aveiro at the mouth of the Vouga, is beginning to recover the maritime importance which it seemed to have for ever lost. The ancient city of Viseu, situated on the mountains from which the Mondego takes its source, is the residence of a bishop, and carries on a considerable trade in cloth and jewellery. Lamego lies at the northern extremity of the province, in a fruitful district between Mount Penude and the river Duero. It was there that the cortes met in 1144, and the same assembly established a constitution by which the royal authority was confined within due limits,—that constitution Alphonso the First swore to maintain.

Province of Entre Douro e Mino.

The province of Entre Douro e Mino is smaller than either of the two last; Braga or the metropolis stands on a height between the Cavado and the Deste. The principal buildings are the archbishop's palace, the seminary and the cathedral; there are besides several imposing remains of Roman grandeur. Porto or Oporto, the second town in the kingdom, rises on a magnificent site at the mouth of the Duero, on two hills called the *Se* and the *Victoria*. It consists of the low and high town; it is divided into five quarters, two of which are encompassed with a wall thirty feet in height, the three others are open. Several large squares, fine churches, different public buildings, such as the court of appeal, the town-house, the dio-

cesan palace, the royal hospitals and extensive storehouses are the ornaments of the commercial city, Grimaraens, an industrious town, was in ancient times the capital of the kingdom.

Province of Tras-os-Montes.

Miranda, formerly *Cambetum Lubicanarum*, a small episcopal city, is the chief town in Tras-os-Montes. Moncorvo, the ancient *Forum Narbasorum*, is ill built, but contains twice as many inhabitants as the last town. Braganza or Bragança, the ancient *Brigantium*, rises in the midst of a fruitful plain. It was within its walls that Don Pedro, the Justiciary married secretly the unfortunate Ines de Castro. Chaves is built on a height near the Tamega, which flows under a bridge of eighteen arches, built by Trajan; the place was celebrated in the time of the Romans for its mineral waters, which they called *Aquæ Flaviæ Turodorum*.

Province of Alen Tejo.

Alen-Tejo is not less mountainous than Beira, although more extensive, it is three times less populous, and being the poorest province in the kingdom, it may be readily supposed that it does not contain many important towns. Evora, the capital and the chief town in the diocess of an archbishop, is styled the second city in Portugal. The population, it is true, does not exceed ten thousand souls, but the vain title has been conferred on it, because several kings made it the place of their residence. It is situated on a height in the chain which forms the continuation of the Serra de Estremos. The ancient names of *Ebora* and *Cerealis*, as Pliny calls it, announced its prosperity. Flattery induced the municipal magistrates to give it the name of *Liberalitas Julia*. The imperial liberality consisted in building monuments with part of the gold that was exacted from the conquered countries, the remains of some are still to be seen at Evora. The aqueduct attributed to Quintus Sertorius is remarkable for its fine state of preservation. A circular monument at the extremity of the town, resembles in the elegance of its proportions, the Lantern of Demosthenes at Athens. Most of the antiquities discovered at Beja, have been collected in a museum. Estremos carries on a trade in pottery and earthen vases of a particular kind, so porous that they are used for lowering the

BOOK CXXXVIII.

temperature of water by promoting evaporation. The ancient town of Elvas, the strongest place in Portugal, rises on a steep hill at two leagues from the right bank of the Guadiana. Some remains of antiquity are still to be observed in Beja, the ancient *Pax Julia*, a town built by the Romans.

Province of Algarva.

Algarva, a small province which the Portuguese sovereigns have denominated a kingdom, contains only four towns worthy of notice. Faro, the capital, a well built city with a harbour at the mouth of the *Valformosa*, exports a great quantity of oranges and other fruits. Tavira is situated on the coast at eight leagues eastwards from Faro, it is almost wholly peopled by fishermen. Villa Nova de Portimao is a small but well-frequented sea-port at the distance of twelve leagues to the west of Faro. Lagos in the middle of a fruitful district, possesses a harbour which according to tradition was dug by the Carthaginians. Sagre owes its name to the *Sacrum Promontorium*, now Cape St. Vincent. Lastly, we may mention the small town of Monchique on the Sierra of the same name; its romantic situation and medicinal springs have of late years rendered it a place of resort.

Portuguese foreign possessions

The Portuguese foreign possessions are the Archipelago of the Azores, the province of Madeira, including Madeira, Porto Santo and other neighbouring islands. It possesses besides the province of Cape Verd, or the islands St. Jago, Forgo-Brava, San Nicolao, Santo Antao, Boavista, Mayo, San Vicente, Sal and Santa Luzia. The principal places in the Portuguese colony of Senegambia, are Cacheu, Bissao, Geba, Farim and Zeguichor. The kingdom of Angola and Congo is another settlement belonging to the same people, it comprehends Angola and several other stations. Prince's island and the island of St. Thomas form a small province. The province of Mosambique contains several important factories. The Portuguese possessions in Asia are the viceroyalty of India, of which Goa is the capital, the province of Salsete and Bardez, the government of Damao and Diu, and the factories of Surate and Macao on the coast of Malabar, the island of Timor, Adomera and Oende Menor in Oceana.

Commerce of Portugal

These insignificant remains of the Portuguese power, and the rising empire of Brazil, of which the independence was rather an advantage than a calamity to the mother country, serve to maintain the commerce of Portugal. The imports which it sends into the same countries, amount in value to L.3,625,000, and the articles it derives from them exceed L.3,000,000. The imports from other countries may be estimated at L.3,875,000, and the exports at L.3,000,000. As it possesses comparatively few commercial resources in its agriculture, it may be inferred that the products of manufacturing industry form a considerable item in the sums now specified. It is in reality not so poor in such products as some political economists have supposed. No comparison can be made between its manufactures and those of more industrious states; but if, notwithstanding the privileges England enjoys, the Portuguese have been able to compete with the English in different manufactures, it may be concluded that industry cannot be at a very low ebb; on the contrary, judicious encouragement and a better system of policy are only wanting to bring it to a high degree of perfection. The reader may form a tolerably correct opinion of the sources of Portuguese wealth from the following tables.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

PORTUGAL.

*Population of the Principal Cities and Towns.**

PROVINCE OF ESTREMADURA.

Divided into eleven Comarcas or Districts.

Lisbon, the capital,	260,000
Torres Vedras, V.	3,400
Castanheira, V.	700
Villa Franca, V.	4,600
Alemquer, V.	2,600
Chamusca, V.	3,000
Cintra, V.	3,700
Leiria, C.	2,000
Pombal, V.	4,800
Alcobaca, V.	1,300
Thomar, V.	3,700
Sardoal, V.	3,300
Abrantes, V.	4,900
Ourem, V.	3,100
Chao da Couce, V.	1,300
Santarem, V.	7,800
Torres Novas, V.	4,200
Setubal, V.	14,800
Cezimbra, V.	4,200
Almada, V.	4,200
Aldea-Gallega, V.	3,500

PROVINCE OF BEIRA.

Divided into eleven Comarcas.

Coimbra, chief town,	15,200
Miranda da Corvo, V.	3,900
Figueira or Figueira da Foz, V.	6,400
Louzaa, V.	3,100
Penella, V.	3,500
Arganil, V.	1,700
Aveiro, C.	4,100
Mira, V.	6,000

* The cities or citades are denoted by the letter C; the burghs or villas by V.

Population continued.

Ilhavo, V.	7,300
Sousa, V.	3,700
Feira, V.	1,600
Ovar, V.	10,400
Viseu, C.	9,200
Lamego, C.	8,900
Arouca, V.	5,500
San Martinho dos Mouros, V.	4,800
Paiva, V.	6,600
Pinhel, C.	1,700
Trancoso, V.	1,200
Guarda, C.	2,400
Covilhao, V.	6,400
Linhares, V.	800
Castello Branco, V.	5,700

PROVINCE OF MINO OR ENTRE DOURO E MINO.

Divided into seven Comarcas.

Braga, chief town,	14,400
Prado, V.	6,500
Porto, or Oporto, C.	70,000
San Joao da Foz, V.	3,300
Pavoa da Varzim, V.	5,700
Pedrozo, V.	3,500
Penafiel da Sousa or Arrifana, C.	2,300
Grimaraens, V.	6,100
Viana, V.	8,000
Barcellos, V.	3,900
Villa do Conde, V.	3,100
Eixo, V.	3,100
Valença,	1,600

PROVINCE OF TRAS-OS MONTES.

Divided into four Comarcas.

Miranda, chief town,	500
Moncorvo, V.	1,600
Villa Real, V.	4,000
Braganza, C.	3,700
Chaves, V.	5,200

PROVINCE OF ALEN-TEJO.

Divided into eight Comarcas.

Evora, chief town,	10,000
Estremoz, V.	5,500
Beja, C.	5,400
Moura, V.	3,800
Sepra, V.	4,600
Ourique, V.	2,400
Villa Vicosa, V.	3,500
Borba, V.	3,400
Elvas, C.	10,000
Compo Maior, V.	4,500
Portalegre, C.	6,100
Castello de Vide, V.	5,700
Crato, V.	1,200
Sertao, V.	3,300
Aviz, V.	1,400

KINGDOM OF ALGARVA.

Divided into three Comarcas.

Faro, metropolis,	8,400
Lagoa or Alagoa, V.	3,000
Tavira, C.	8,600
Loulé, V.	8,200
Lagos, C.	6,800
Villa Nova da Portinao, V.	3,200

Population of the Portuguese Provinces in 1826, *according to their surface.*

Provinces.	Surface in square leagues.	Population.	Inhabitants for every square league.
Mino,	375	810,000	2,160
Tras-os-Montes,	531	285,000	536
Beira,	1,125	940,000	836
Estremadura,	1,297	745,000	574
Alen-Tejo,	1,344	330,800	245
Algarva,	250	104,000	416
	4,922	3,214,000	653*

* Twenty-five of these leagues are equal to a degree, consequently each of them is equal to 2 + 2-5 geographical miles.

† If the rest of Portugal were as populous as the province of Mino, it might contain 10,591,520 inhabitants.

MONASTERIES.

	Convents.	Monks.	Revenue.
Military orders, monks, regular and secular canons,	29	1,160	L.87,600
Mendicant orders,	167	2,350	54,000
Endowed mendicants	155	2,070	65,000
Missionaries,	9	180	3,000
	360	5,760	160,100

Produce of the Land belonging to the above Convents.

	Alqueires or Quarters.
Wheat,	62,600 or 4,410
Idem, second crop,	43,800 or 2,086
Barley,	23,900 or 1,138
Leguminous plants,	1,100 or 50
	Almudes or Hogsheads.
Wine,	30,000 or 2,062
Oil,	16,000 or 1,412

Estimated value of these products, L.30,000.

Convents for Women.

Convents of different orders.	126	
Convents of Recalhimentos (hospitals)	12	
Professed nuns,		2,725
Commandadeiras (retired sisters)		162
Novices,		55
Seigas (sisters)		151
Senhoras seculares (secular ladies)		164
Educandas (pupils)		739
Creadas (domestics)		1,907
Total number of convents,	138	5,903

Revenue, L.188,750.

Produce of the Lands belonging to the above Orders

	Alqueires or Quarters
Wheat,	49,500 or 2,360
Barley,	33,000 or 1,590
	Almudes or Hogsheads.
Wine,	3,900 or 246
Oil,	6,300 or 433

Estimated value of other products, L.2,605.

Estimated value of all the land produce, L.15,105.

BOOK CXXXVIII

Table of the Male Population of Portugal in 1826, *according to their conditions and employments.*

Secular clergy,	30,000	47,500
Regular Idem,	17,500	
Persons employed by government,	10,250	20,600
Magistrates, advocates, notaries, bailiffs,	9,500	
Persons employed in the hospitals,	850	
Teachers of different sciences and arts,	350	12,050
Schoolmasters,	1,850	
Students of divinity under sixteen years of age	3,100	
Physicians, surgeons, and druggists,	5,700	
Artists,	1,000	
Proprietors and rentholders,		75,000
Merchants and retailers,	8,500	30,300
Muleteers, wagoners, couriers, &c.	3,100	
Sailors and fishermen,	18,700	
Peasants & proprietors cultivating their own lands	120,000	601,500
Farmers and peasants cultivating lands on lease,	169,809	
Day labourers,	268,750	
Shepherds and other farm servants,	43,750	
Masters and workmen in vegetable substances,	57,800	204,200
Idem Idem animal substance,	80,600	
Idem Idem mineral substances,	18,000	
Idem Idem different substances,	7,750	
House servants, valets, &c.	58,750	118,600
Individuals not classed,	56,200	
Prisoners and persons condemned to labour,	1,850	
Military and naval force,	35,000	
Total number,		1,142,950

Portuguese Navy in 1821.

Ships of the line.	Frigates.	Sloops.	Brigs.	Charuas or Transports.
4	11	7	6	4

Value of the articles manufactured in Portugal, and exported to Brazil and the colonies in 1819.

	Value in reis.	in L.	s.
Cotton stuffs,	456,269,660	118,818	2
Woollen,	40,615,660	10,577	
Silk,	250,443,415	65,440	
Gold and silver,	72,218,860	18,807	
Linens, &c.	9,813,680	2,555	3
Different articles,	413,401,141	107,656	11
Sum Total,	1,242,762,416	L.423,853	16

Number of Students and Pupils in the different Schools and Colleges in 1820.

University and Royal College at Coimbra,	1,604
All the schools under the directory of studies,	29,684
Naval and commercial academy at Oporto,	315
Commercial academy at Lisbon,	151
Marine academy,	300
Marine observatory,	60
Royal school of naval architecture,	15
of fortification, artillery and drawing,	100
military college,	200
college of surgery,	360
Schools under the monastery of St. Vincent da Foro,	242
Royal schools under the congregation of the oratory,	200
Schools of grammar, rhetoric, and philosophy,	155
Arabic school,	2
Royal college of St. Antony and St. Peter,	50
Royal school of drawing and civil architecture,	20
Royal school of sculpture,	6
Musical seminary,	15
Gratuitous school for the dumb,	21
Military school, into which private soldiers are admitted,	4,000
	37,500

PUBLIC LIBRARIES.

Lisbon,	royal library,	85,000 volumes.
	library of Jesus,	32,000
	of St. Francisco,	20,000
	of St. Vincent da Fora,	22,000
	of Necessidades,	28,000
Coimbra,	of the University,	38,000
	of Santa Cruz,	36,000
Porto,	of the Diocess,	32,000
Tibaens,		25,000
Evora,		20,000

FINANCE.

Revenue.	National Debt.
L. 2,250,000	L.6,670,000

BOOK CXXXIX.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Spanish Peninsula. Kingdom of Spain.

BOOK CXXXIX.

Origin of the Spanish monarchy.

PELAGIUS raised the standard of the cross, and past the mountains in Asturia to rescue some portion of Spain from the Moorish yoke. The example of patriotic devotedness was imitated by other chiefs, and the districts restored to Christianity and independence, were erected into petty kingdoms. Although all of them were united under Ferdinand and Isabella, the different crowns retained their titles, geographical limits, as well as certain privileges which serve to recall the glorious epoch of their origin, and to account for the ancient division of Spain into fourteen principal provinces, still denominated kingdoms, and subdivided into smaller provinces.

The superficial extent of Spain, and the limits by which it is separated from Portugal have been already mentioned; but the amount of its population has not been stated; nothing has hitherto been said of the inhabitants, their resources, commerce, in short, of whatever constitutes the strength or weakness of the nation.

Population of Spain.

According to the latest work published in Spain,* the population of the country together with that of the Baleares amounted in 1826 to 13,902,234 individuals, including the clergy, the naval and military forces, mendicants, prisoners

* Diccionario Geografico e Statistico de Espagna y Portugal by Don Sebastian de Minano.

and the people in work-houses or hospitals. But it is a hopeless task to ascertain the number of inhabitants in Spain, the elements on which the calculation depends, are wanting, for the registers, it is well known, are very inaccurately kept by the curates. The number of ecclesiastics, although many convents were destroyed when the country was in the hands of the French, or from the year 1808 to 1814, is nearly equal to 150,000 individuals.

Religion.

The Catholic religion is the only one acknowledged in the country; the dignitaries are the archbishop of Toledo, also entitled primate of Spain, eight archbishops and fifty-one bishops. There are besides sixty-one cathedral and a hundred and fourteen collegiate churches, of which the canons and abbots are vested with almost episcopal authority.

Physical and moral character of the Spaniards.

To judge correctly of the physical and moral character of the Spaniards, it is necessary to examine the different provinces. If it may be so said the shades are better defined in each Spanish province than in other European kingdoms, because the low state of industry, the want of roads, and the natural barriers that separate states, are so many obstacles to that frequent intercourse and communication which diffuse a uniform character over a whole population. Thus he who crosses Spain in different directions, cannot fail to observe the light and graceful forms of the Biscayans, the lofty stature of the Gallicians and Catalonians, the dark complexions of the Estremadúrans, the strength of the Castillians, and the pale complexions of the Murcians. The women are, in general, graceful and well made; if their beauty has been much commended, it may perhaps be attributed to their animated and expressive features. Differences not less obvious are observable in the moral character of the people in the different provinces. The Biscayans are haughty, irascible, passionate,* the Gallicians are melancholy and unsocial, but laborious and brave, the Catalonians are impetuous and indocile, the inhabitants of Arragon are devoted to their country, and attached to its ancient customs; the Castillians are grave and

* Laborde, Universarie de l'Espagne, tom. v.

BOOK CXXXIX.

proud, the Estremadurans indolent and vain; the Andalusians may be remarked for their arrogance, they have been called the Gascons of Spain; the Murcians are slow and dull, the most ignorant and at the same time the most suspicious people in the Peninsula; the Valencians, on the other hand, are gay and inconstant, ingenuous and industrious. As to the people generally,* the most marked traits in the Spanish character are circumspection, pride, honesty, great patience and resolution in their undertakings, and an aversion to every improvement unless its utility be very apparent.

Language and literature.

It may be inferred from the penetration and perseverance of the Spaniards that they would have excelled in the culture of the exact sciences, but the impulse given to natural philosophy was checked by the inquisition. Thus, the road was shut to the most attractive departments of knowledge, and the brilliant imagination of the people exhausted itself in the culture of letters. The most ancient romances form part of Spanish literature; at an early period it consisted principally of such works and the national songs recording the great achievements of the Cid. The Spanish language is expressive and harmonious, although several guttural words have been imported from the Arabic. It may be divided into five dialects; the most ancient is still spoken in the kingdom of Leon and Castille, but the dialect of Toledo is the most pure and the one most generally used since the time of Charles the Fifth. The same dialect has been immortalized by the inimitable Cervantes, by Quevedo, who to the graces of art unites the sublimity of genius, by Guevara, from whom Le Sage has taken his tales,† by Lopez de Vega, the author of 1800 plays, and by the celebrated Calderone, whose comedies have formed the groundwork of a thousand others.

Sciences and arts.

Little attention has been paid to science; indeed it is only possible to mention a few learned lawyers, well informed physicians, laborious botanists and uselessly profound theologians. Spain has made greater advances in

* See Antillon and Minano.

† Le Diable Boiteaux.

the fine arts, it has produced engravers little inferior to any of Italy or the Netherlands. In painting Murillo almost rivals Van Dyck; Coello has been compared to Paul Veronese, and the graceful Coreno enjoys the title of the Spanish Titian. Herrara, Arnal and John Battista hold the first rank among Spanish architects; Meno, Alvares, and Toledo among sculptors.

Government.

Before Charles the Fifth succeeded to the throne of Spain, the government was a limited monarchy, the powers of the crown were restrained by the cortes, those provincial assemblies of which the origin has been already explained,* and in which the privileged classes were only represented. The privileges of these assemblies were gradually destroyed by the princes of the houses of Austria and Bourbon. Their power and influence had been wholly abolished long before 1808, when Napoleon compelled Charles the Fourth and his son Ferdinand the Seventh to renounce all the claims which they or their successors might have to the crown, and proclaimed his brother Joseph, king of Spain and the Indies. The obstinate and brave resistance of the Spanish people against a foreign usurper, gave additional courage to the members of the provincial juntos, to whom the direction of the war was committed. The most important of these assemblies was held at Cadiz, the members established a council of regency, to which they resigned their authority; an extraordinary cortes was soon afterwards convoked, and that constitution framed, which although very defective, was acknowledged in 1812 by the powers leagued against France. To reward the heroic efforts of the Spaniards in the cause of independence, Ferdinand swore to maintain the constitution; being at liberty to modify or improve it, he disregarded his oath, and the constitution was abolished. The inquisition had been suppressed, that odious tribunal was called anew into existence; the members of cortes were declared inviolable, the king sent them into exile. Discontent succeeded the enthusiasm that had accompanied the return of the sovereign, insurrections extended through

* See the preceding chapter.

BOOK CXXXIX.

the country, and on the first of January 1820, the constitution of the cortes was proclaimed by the army in the island of Leon. Such were the conditions offered to Ferdinand, and he was obliged to accept them; he requested the right of modifying the constitution, but the eagerness with which he had formally abolished it, occasioned distrust, the constitution was declared unalterable. At the same time, the partisans of absolute power busied themselves in exciting the people, or in creating disturbances in which ecclesiastics and monks were not ashamed to take a part inconsistent with their duty, and disgraceful to their sacred character. The French cabinet, on the supposition that the Spaniards were not sufficiently enlightened to enjoy the blessings of a representative government, thought fit to interfere and to restore the ancient system. The Duke of Angouleme having entered Spain at the head of an army which was nowhere opposed by the intrepid bands, so formidable in the time of Napoleon, dissolved the cortes, and liberated the king. The memorable ordinance of Andujar was passed by the same general; thus giving an example of great moderation, wishing no other recompense for the treasures that France had spent than the safety and protection of those who had supported the constitutional government. It is almost unnecessary to add that his intentions were never carried into effect.

Power of the crown.

The king possesses at present an unlimited authority; different councils have been created, but the most important or the council of state was formed in the year 1825. Justice is administered throughout the kingdom by supreme courts that are held in the metropolis of each province. The courts of Valladolid and Grenada are entitled *chanceries*, that of Navarre is called a council, and the rest tribunals *(audiencias.)* The captain-general of a province is *ex officio* the president of a court. Whatever may tend to recall the time of the cortes has been abolished; that the people may believe all authority to be centred in the king, the towns are no longer suffered to elect their mayors or magistrates; this privilege, the last of all those which served to remind the Spaniards of a better system, was taken away in 1823.

Industry and agriculture, long neglected in Spain, cannot be supposed to have made much progress during the last twenty years of wars and revolutions to which the unhappy country has been exposed.

Agriculture.

The swarms of grasshoppers that destroy the fields, are a minor evil, if compared with the obstinacy and prejudices of the husbandmen. Foreigners attribute incorrectly the low state of agriculture to the indolence of the people; such an opinion, says M. Minano, was never entertained by those who have seen the Spaniards toiling and labouring in the almost inaccessible mountains of the Asturias, Gallicia and Catalonia, or in the arid ravines of Guipuscoa, Biscay and Navarre, in the marshes of Valencia, or in the burning plains of Andalusia and Estremadura. The men, who endure so much fatigue for so small wages, cannot be thought either indolent or indifferent.

Products.

Spain, one of the most fruitful countries in Europe, might also from the variety of its products be considered the most wealthy; wheat, secale, barley, maize and lint are cultivated in almost all the provinces, but although the abstinence and frugality of the people are proverbial, the crops are insufficient for the consumption. Wheat is most common in Leon, Estremadura, the two Castilles, Arragon, Andalusia and Murcia. Secale is raised in many parts of Biscay, Navarre and Catalonia. Oats are neglected or despised, instead of that grain, the Spaniards in Grenada and Seville give barley to their cattle. The inhabitants of Gallicia cultivate lint, a plant that does not appear to be very common in the other provinces. Oil and soda are the principal products of the southern provinces on the shores of the Mediterranean; the others are sumach and different esculent plants of an admirable quality. In the same part of the country are seen fields of saffron; the rice plantations appear like so many waving plains, and the cotton shrub thrives as well as on its aboriginal soil. The mulberry trees are very luxuriant, and their leaves afford rich nourishment to the bombix, it is thus easy to explain why the silk it secretes is so valuable. Rice abounds in Catalonia and in the kingdom of Valencia. The last province and Audalusia are the finest in Spain;

BOOK CXXXIX.

trees of different sorts are covered with delicious fruit, the sugar-cane grows near the cotton plant, and numerous olives furnish the oil that forms at present an important branch of commerce. The honey in the province of Cuenca was celebrated in the time of the Romans for its whiteness and agreeable flavour, on account of which it was called *mel rosmarinum*. Anise, maize and different vegetables useful in dyeing, are the principal riches of Murcia; barilla, the plant from which the inhabitants extract soda, is almost confined to Valencia, a province that has been styled from its culture, the garden of Spain. The lands in Arragon near the Ebro abound in grain, saffron and different fruits, the forests too are well kept; but at a distance from the river, the soil is arid, and the greater part of it uncultivated. Navarre may be distinguished by its extensive valleys covered with rich pastures. The Vascongadan provinces and particularly Biscay are remarkable for their fertility and the industry of their inhabitants. The food of the peasantry in Gallicia consists principally of maize, chestnuts and potatoes; the last plant was first imported into the same province from which it has been diffused throughout Europe. Naval timber is obtained from the forests in the Asturias, and numerous herds are fattened on the pastures. As to the two Castilles, the old is arid and sterile, the other is warmer and not so unfruitful.

Vineyards.

The lands in almost every part of Spain are favourable to the culture of the vine. The excess of the vintage above the quantity consumed in the country, forms a considerable branch of the export trade, and it might be still much more important, if in making the wine and cultivating the grape, the people availed themselves of the improvements that have been known to chemists and agriculturists during more than twenty years.* The best wines are those of *Peralta* in Navarre *Ribadavia* and *Betanzos* in Gallicia, *Manzanares* and *Val de Penas* in La Mancha, *Xeres San Lucar* and *Rota* in Seville, *Cabra* in *Lucena* and almost all the district of *Campine* in Cordova, *Malaga* in Grenada,

* See Minano's Geographical and Statistical Dictionary, article SPAIN.

and lastly *Alicante* in Valentia. Although these wines are held in great estimation, the quantity exported bears no proportion to the brandy that is sent from the same parts of the country to the different ports in Spain.

Sheep.

The little profit that Spain now receives from its wool, affords a sad contrast to the treasures it derived for the same article at a very early period. It would not be easy to enumerate the fatal effects of the war which France maintained against the Spaniards during the imperial government, and if it were at all necessary to account for the decay in the wool trade, other causes that have contributed in a greater or less degree, might also be mentioned. Now that Spanish sheep are imported into France and other countries where the breed is perpetuated, it is difficult to conceive that Spain can ever again arrive at the same pre-eminence in the same trade. But it has been proved that the merinos are fraudulently exported, it cannot be doubted that such an evil might be checked by a wise administration; if it were prevented and greater encouragement afforded to the woollen manufactures, Spain might at least afford to produce articles equally good and at as moderate prices as any of her rivals. The breed of sheep, it is not less certain, might be still more improved in the same country, and the privileges of the *Mesta** need not interfere with the interests of the landed proprietor. The merinos are divided into two classes, those that are stationary, and those that migrate; the former may amount in all to 8,000,000, the number of the latter, including the flocks that belong to the clergy as well as to the laymen, is still greater.† Two shepherds drive a flock of a thousand or twelve hundred merinos; they leave the heights of Old Castille in the month of October, and lay waste the plains of Estremadura and Andalusia until the month of May, then the sheep are driven back to the mountains. There are not less then sixteen thousand shepherds,‡ almost as

* The Mesta is a society that meets every year, the president is a counsellor of state, and the members are the owners of the numerous flocks that are conducted for the sake of pasturage into different provinces.

† See the statistical tables at the end of the chapter.

‡ M. Al. de Laborde estimates their number at forty thousand; but he includes those that remain at home as well as the others who travel.

BOOK CXXXIX.

ignorant as their flocks, they exercise a despotic authority and commit many abuses in the districts through which they pass. The length of their stay in any part of the country depends on the quantity of food they find for their sheep. A space equal to 240 feet in breadth is allotted to each flock by the ordinances of the Mesta; once arrived at the end of their journey, the sheep are put into pastures, and the Mesta regulates in a very arbitrary manner the rate of rent payable to the proprietors.

The depopulation of certain provinces, and the decay of agriculture have been attributed not without reason to these annual migrations; indeed Biscay, the Asturias, Gallicia and Burgos, not being exposed to the same calamity, are better peopled and better cultivated than the provinces in which the shepherds and their flocks resort.

Sheep shearing.

The sheep are shorn after the shepherds return from their summer quarters. It is a very busy time and the greater part of the inhabitants are employed. The work is done in large sheds that may hold a flock of forty or sixty thousand sheep. One may judge of the number of hands employed, since it requires a hundred and twenty-five persons to shear a thousand sheep; some are occupied in cutting the wool, and others in dividing it into four sorts according to the different degrees of fineness. The sheep-shearing season is not less joyous than the vintage in the most fruitful districts of Spain.

Oxen.

Several parts of the country are ill provided with horned cattle, particularly Catalonia, Arragon, Navarre, and Biscay, which depend principally for their supplies on France. Many oxen are fattened on the rich pastures in the central districts of Gallicia. Fine cattle are reared in the Asturias, there the cow is a most useful animal to the peasantry, the milk is converted into butter and cheese; indeed a sufficient quantity might be produced for the consumption of Spain, if the inhabitants knew how to salt or preserve it. The symmetry of the oxen in Andalusia was admired by the ancients, unnumbered herds of the same kind may still be seen on its fertile meadows. Pigs are very common on the Aracena, Constatina and other mountains in the same province; and the bacon of Leon as well as Gallicia

is much prized throughout Spain; its delicate taste has been attributed to the sweet acorns on which the pigs are fed. BOOK CXXXIX.

Although the mules and horses of the same country are not in so great repute as they once were, the Asturias may still boast of their light and spirited ponies, while the horses of Andalusia retain the strength that distinguishes the Arab breed. The mules in these provinces are hardy and robust, qualities they derive from the ass, which has degenerated less in Spain than in France. Horses.

Almost all the wild animals in southern France are common to Spain. The mountains and plains abound in game; the wild boar, the bear and different kinds of deer are found in the Gallician mountains and Asturian forests. Hares, rabbits, red partridges and bustards are common in Andalusia; the wolf still frequents all the wooded and mountainous districts in the country. The chamois and the lynx find shelter on the Pyrenees and the mountains of Cuenca. The wild animals in Murcia and the southern parts of Spain are the African Mousemon and wild cat, the porcupine and scorpion (*truxalis nasutus*) and the cameleon. A naturalist* having observed the striking similarity between the zoology of Southern Spain and northern Africa, is led by the analogy to conclude that the continents now separated by the Straits at Gibraltar were once united. Wild animals.

Estremadura and Andalusia are sometimes desolated by swarms of grasshoppers; but it cannot be difficult to destroy them, for they are never seen in great numbers until some time after their first appearance, still the opportunity has been often neglected, and insects from the plains of Arabia lay waste the country when it is impossible to check the devastation. Grasshoppers.

The rivers as well as the coasts of Spain abound in fish; in this way Gallicia derives its wealth; the sardel fisheries are perhaps as valuable as any others in that province. The sardel is salted so as to render it fit for exportation, very Fish.

* Bory de St. Vincent, Guide de Voyageur en Espagne.

BOOK CXXXIX.

many of them are consumed in Spain, France and the Levant. The tunny fisheries in the same province are also very profitable, indeed the importance of the fisheries on the southern and eastern coasts of Spain, depends on the high prices given for tunnies and anchovies.

Spain admits less of a vague or general description than any other country in Europe. The people in France, England and Italy are distinguished by national characters, of which the colours are too well defined to be ever confounded; but shades more or less obscure mark the Spaniards of the different provinces, and contrasts more or less striking separate them from each other. To mark these shades and contrasts, to ascertain their influence on the moral and intellectual character of the Spanish people, has hitherto proved a stumbling-block to many who have attempted to describe Spain, or to compare the Spaniards with the inhabitants of other countries in Europe. To give an accurate description therefore, or at least one free from incorrect generalities, it is necessary that each division or province in Spain be separately examined.

Divisions.

The kingdom has been divided into fourteen principal parts, each of which has its authorities or separate administration, and several are subdivided into small provinces.*

* The following are the general divisions:

In the north.

1st. The kingdom of Navarre, a province.
2d. The three Vascongades or Biscayan provinces.
3d. The principality of the Asturias, a province.
4th. The kingdom of Gallicia, divided into seven provinces.
5th. The kingdom of Arragon, a province.
6th. The principality of Catalonia, a province.

In the centre.

7th. The kingdom of Leon, divided into six provinces.
8th. Old Castille, divided into five.
9th. Estremadura, a province.
10th. New Castille, divided into five provinces.
11th. Kingdom of Valencia, a province.

In the south.

12th. Andalusia, including the kingdoms of Cordova, Seville, Grenada, and the *New Population*, forming seven provinces.
13th. The kingdom of Murcia, a province.

In the Mediterranean.

14th. Balearic islands, in all forty-one provinces.

The disadvantages of what has been termed *centralization*, are not felt in Spain, an evil that exists in France, and which most Frenchmen would wish to see abolished.

Kingdom of Navarre.

The kingdom of Navarre is separated from France by the Pyrenees; it is bounded on the east by Arragon, on the south by Old Castille, and on the west by the Vascongades. The country is mountainous, but intersected with rich and fruitful valleys, and crossed in different directions with excellent roads, an advantage which few Spanish provinces possess. The climate although cold and variable, is by no means unwholesome; the inhabitants are laborious and poor. That petty kingdom, of which an ancestor of Henry the Fourth had been deprived by pope Julius the Second, was united to the crown of Arragon and Castille in the year 1518. The traveller who enters the country from France, observes as soon as he has crossed the Pyrenees, the small plain of Roncevallos, and in the convent of the same town, are still seen several relics, that may remind him of the brave Roland and archbishop Turpin.

Pampeluna

Pampeluna (Pamplona) rises on Mount St. Christopher, at no great distance from the last place, above the banks of

Spain was divided in 1822, conformably to a decree of the cortes, into fifty-one provinces; Navarre was at the same time called the province of Pampeluna.

Three provinces were included in the Biscays, *Vitloria*, *San Sebastian* and *Bilboa*.

One province or Oviedo in the Asturias.

Those of *Corunna*, *Lugo*, *Vigo* and *Orense* in Gallicia.

Those of *Villafranca*, *Leon*, *Zamora*, *Salamanca* and *Palencia* in the kingdom of Leon.

Those of *Santander*, *Burgos*, *Logrono*, *Soria*, *Valladolid*, *Segovia* and *Arila* in Old Castille.

Those of *Huesca*, *Teruel*, *Calatyud* and *Sarragossa* in *Arragon*.

Those of *Gerona*, *Barcelona*, *Tarragona*, and *Lerida* in Catalonia.

Those of *Caceres* and *Badajos* in Estremadura.

Those of *Madrid*, *Guadalaxara*, *Cuenca* and *Toledo* in New Castille.

Cuidad-Real in La Mancha.

Those of *Alicante*, *San Felipe*, *Valencia* and *Castellon de la Plana* in the kingdom of Valencia.

Huelva, *Seville*, *Cadiz*, *Jaen*, *Cordova*, *Grenada*, *Malaga* and *Almeria* in Andalusia.

Murcia and *Chincilla* in the kingdom of Murcia.

Palma in the Baleares.

These divisions were abolished when the king obtained despotic power.

BOOK CXXXIX.

the Arga. It has been affirmed that the town was built by Pompey, who gave it the name of *Pompeiopolis*, at all events, it is the capital of the province, and the seat of a diocess. The walls, bastions and ancient castle are imposing, but the interior of the town is by no means cheerful, the streets are straight, spacious and deserted, the houses are lofty and built of stone; the trade of the inhabitants consists chiefly in coarse cloths and different sorts of earthen ware. Tudela, a handsome episcopal town, possessing cloth manufactories, soap and porcelain works, and carrying on a considerable trade in cattle, stands at the confluence of the Queila and the Ebro.

Vascongades.

The Vascongades* or the three provinces that derive their name from the ancient Basque population, form a triangle of which the northern side is watered by the gulf of Gascony, and the two others bounded by Navarre and Old Castille. Distinguished by that great activity and love of independence common to the people in other mountainous countries, these industrious Basques have found in an unfruitful soil, the palladium of their freedom. Although subject to the Spanish domination in virtue of ancient treaties, the kings of Spain may rather be considered their protectors than their sovereigns. The three provinces have a separate government and general assemblies in which their mutual interests are not only discussed, but the orders of the king examined, for they cannot be executed without that formality. They tax themselves to defray the expenses of the local administration; the contributions, which they pay to the crown, are considered gifts that are rarely sought, and never granted unless they be very moderate.

Province of Guipuscoa

The Bidassoa separates France from the province of

* M. William de Humboldt has proved in his learned researches, that the Basque bears more characters of a primitive language than any other known tongue in Europe. The name of the people who speak it, appears to be derived from the Basque word *Vaso*, which signifies a mountain. If the same word be used adjectively, the termination co must be added, thus the people have been denominated *Vasoco*, and by contraction *Vasco* or *mountainous*. The Romans called the Basques, Vascones, and their country Vasconia, of which the etymology is still preserved in the Spanish word *Vascongades*.

Guipuscoa. Fontarrabia or Fuenterrabia, according to its Latin name *Fons rapidus*, is a strong place on the mouth of the little river, which discharges itself into the bay of Biscay. Tolosa or the ancient *Iturissa* is a small but pleasant town on the banks of the Orio. Saint Sebastian is the capital of the province; situated on a Peninsula watered by the bay, with a small harbour at the mouth of the Urumea, the town itself cannot be considered very large, but the inhabitants are industrious, they carry on a trade in cloth, leather, arms and iron. A bay apparently closed on all sides by mountains runs into the land between Fontarrabia and Saint Sebastian; it forms the harbour of Los Passages, perhaps the finest and safest in Europe. The town is built on a piece of ground between the mountains and the bay. Bergara possesses a patriotic school, in which the physical sciences are taught, and where the young nobles of the country are educated at the expense of the state. All the coasts are peopled by fishermen or mariners, and the rural districts by laborious and peaceful husbandmen.

Saint Sebastian.

No country can be more agreeable than the hills in Biscay, none more fruitful than the cultivated vallies. Bilboa or the capital has long been the mart of all the wool that Spain exports, and of all the merchandise sent from different countries into the northern provinces of the kingdom. Crowds frequent the harbour, many ships repair to it, although the town may be about two leagues from the sea; it rises above the right bank of the Ausa, a small river sufficiently deep to receive large merchant vessels; the same river abounds in *angulas*, a very delicate fish, highly valued in Spain.

Province of Biscay.

The road that leads from Biscay into the province of Alava passes along the great ravine and mountain of Salivas. Beyond the burgh of the same name, the heights become gradually lower until they terminate in the fruitful plain of Vittoria, in which many hamlets and villages vary the romantic scenery. *Vittoria*, the capital or, according to its Latin name, *Victoria* serves still to mark the place where the Cantabri were defeated in the reign of Augustus. It was rebuilt by Sancho the Great, who gained under its walls a decisive victory over the Saracens. The old town consists

Province of Alava. Vittoria.

BOOK CXXXIX.

of irregular and clumsy houses, but the new has been built with much elegance, it contains a spacious square at present set apart for bull fights. Several festivals are held in Vittoria, some in honour of the young, others of married persons; these ceremonies tend to preserve the purity of the people.

Principality of the Asturias.

The principality of the Asturias is bounded on the north by the ocean, on the east by Biscay, on the south by the ridge of the Asturian Pyrenees, and on the west by Gallicia. Many small and sinuous vallies intersect it, they are watered by torrents and rivers well supplied with fish. The people in the province boast that they have never mixed with foreigners; they are brave, patient and laborious. Oviedo or the capital, the ancient *Ovetum*, may be situated about the middle of the province, on a hill that rises above an undulating plain between the Nora and the Nalon. The cathedral, a Gothic edifice and the finest in the town, was built in the eleventh century, some ancient relics have been deposited in it, and the people hold them in great veneration. Cangas de Onis, a small town on the banks of the Cella, stands at a short distance from the abbey of Our Lady of Cavadonga, which, it is said, occupies the site where Pelagius first planted the standard of independence. The same distinguished person resided long at Gijon, a well built town at the base of a mountain that terminates in cape Penas; its port was formerly much frequented. Aviles rises on the other side of the cape, it carries on a trade in coal, copper and hardware manufactured in the neighbourhood.

Oviedo.

Gallicia.

The kingdom of Gallicia, contiguous to the Asturias and to Leon, is bounded on the north and the west by the ocean, and on the south by Portugal. The large vallies in the province are formed by different high chains connected with the Pyrenean range. Some important towns and more than forty harbours are situated in Gallicia. Santiago or San Iago de Compostella, although it may not perhaps be the ancient *Galloecia*, is considered the capital of the kingdom. The streets are crooked and ill paved the principal ornament of the town, the large Gothic cathedral, was built more than a thousand years ago. It is a double edifice, the lower forms a subterranean church consecrated to *St. Iago Minore* or St. James

the younger, in the upper one the pious catholics adore the body of St. James the elder, which was discovered at the time the workmen were building the cathedral. The riches of the same church or the treasures supplied by credulous piety have been greatly exaggerated, probably because they were never generally known until an equal division was made between the chapter and Marshal Ney in 1809; the sum alloted to him for the pay of his troops amounted to a hundred thousand crowns.* The gold statue of St. James turned out to be only gilt, and his diamond eyes, it was discovered, were *imitation diamonds*. The magnificence of the church consists principally in the extravagance of the sculpture, and in the beauty of the painted windows. The trade in images, chaplets, and other objects of superstition is not without importance at Santiago, but the real industry of the place is centred in the cloth and silk manufactories. Orensé, situated in a fine country near the southern extremity of the province, and watered by the Mino, was formerely more flourishing; a fine bridge of ten arches so lofty that a ship of war with all its masts may sail under them, has been built over the river; one edifice too, the Gothic cathedral, may be remarked for the elegance and regularity of its proportions. Many still resort to the three warm springs, on account of which the town was called *Aquæ Caldæ* by the ancients. Lugo, founded by the Romans seventy-six years before the vulgar era, was named *Lucus Augusti* in honour of Augustus. The Tamboga waters the town, the thermal springs and a sacred wood induced the Romans to build it on its present site, where several ruins not uninteresting to antiquaries are still to be seen within the walls and in the neighbourhood. The townhouse and its majestic front were built by the ancients. The circular walls that encompass Lugo, might contain ten times the number of inhabitants, they are nearly a league in circumference. Mondonedo, situated on the Sierra d'Infestia of which the declivities descend to the ocean, was the ancient *Bretonia*; it was long well known for its cattle-fairs, but at present they are not much frequented.

* Bory de St. Vincent, Guide du Voyageur en Espagne.

BOOK CXXXIX.

Ports in Gallicia.

The principal ports in Gallicia may now be mentioned. Ferol, the chief town in one of the three maritime departments in Spain, possesses a naval academy and school; the spacious harbour forms a bay, on which formidable batteries have been erected to guard the narrow entrance. The inhabitants are industrious and consequently wealthy. Betanzos or the ancient *Brigantiun*, situated at some distance to the south of Ferol, unites a trade in light wines with the commerce of its port. *Corogne* or Corunna, the *Caronium* of the Gallœci, at the extremity of a small Peninsula about five leagues from Betanzos, has been divided into two towns; the one or the old is surrounded with fortifications, the other or the Pescadaria, as it has been called from its fish market, is only fortified on the side of the land. The bay of Corunna, may be about a league in breadth; the harbour, perhaps the most frequented of any in Gallicia, is large and commodious, it forms a crescent, which the fort St. Anthony serves to defend. The town is enriched by its commerce, by sardel fisheries, cloth and hosiery, lastly by cigar manufactories in which more than five hundred women are employed. It is not improbable that the word Corunna has been derived from *Columna;* such at least was the name that the ancients gave a tower that was used as a pharos, in height and appearance not unlike a column. The same tower still remains; according to tradition it was built and consecrated to Hercules by the Phenicians, at a later period repaired by the Romans who dedicated it to Mars. A Latin inscription serves to confirm the tradition, but a learned Spaniard considers it the work of Trajan.*

Province of Leon.

The kingdom of Leon, an important Spanish province, still retains its ancient title; contiguous to Portugal and Gallicia on the west, it is bounded by Estremadura on the south, by Old Castille on the east, and by the mountains which separate it from the Asturias on the north. The Duero crosses it from east to west.

Town of Leon.

The province derives its name from the town of Leon, the capital founded by the emperor Galba, on the place

* Don Jose Cornide, the academician. See his Dissertation on that Monument.

where a Roman legion (*legio septima gemina*) was stationed. The cathedral church, the principal ornament of the place, was commenced about the end of the twelfth century, and completed in the fourteenth; remarkable for its elegance and lightness, it has been considered the finest in Spain. The streets are crooked and for the most part very dirty, they are chiefly composed of Gothic and irregular houses; the market place, however, may be considered an exception; it forms a perfect square, and strangers admire it for the regularity of the buildings. The antiquary may still discover inscriptions and other Roman monuments in Astorga, the ancient *Asturica Augusta;* the thick walls of the town, flanked with turrets and bastions, were repaired and extended by the French. Ponferrada is supposed to have been *Pons Ferratus,* a Roman town; it possessed an ancient castle now in ruins, which belonged to the Templars. It stands at the confluence of the Sil and the Boeza in the middle of a large and fruitful valley enclosed by steep heights. Zamora was destroyed by the Moors in the eleventh century, and rebuilt by Ferdinand the Second and Alphonso the Eighth. It rises on the right bank of the Duero; the bridge across the river may be said to be the greatest ornament to the town; the military school has not wholly lost its ancient reputation. The pleasant city of Toro, although very insignificant in point of size, contains not less than eighteen parishes and an infirmary. The cortes met within its walls in the year 1505, and to that assembly the Spaniards were indebted for the wise and equitable laws that are still called the laws of Toro. Tordesillas, the ancient *Turris Syllæ,* is still commanded by the old castle, where the mother of Charles the Fifth died in the year 1555, but long before that period, she was afflicted with the loss of reason. Carrion de los Condes is celebrated in the Spanish chronicles for the exploits of the Cid, and also for a memorable victory over the Moors. An annual tribute of a hundred virgins, which the Moorish princes exacted from the Spaniards, was abolished after the battle, and a festival still held in the town, serves to commemorate the event. The town contains eight parishes, it must be a place of considerable industry, for there are not fewer

BOOK CXXXIX.

than six linen manufactories, eight leather works, five oil, and as many flour mills. Palencia may be considered an agreeable town, although the houses are of Gothic architecture. In one large and well built square, two of the sides are adorned with piazzas, and the cathedral erected by King Sancho in the vicinity, is not inferior in size to any in Spain. Valladolid possesses an university and an academy of painting; the royal castle was the birth-place of Philip the Second and several kings; the cathedral and fifteen parish churches are richly endowed, many broad and straight streets are adorned with porticos supported on granite pillars, they terminate in a spacious square; but with all these advantages, it has the appearance of a deserted town. The population was formerly equal to a hundred thousand persons, it does not amount at present to twenty-five thousand. The inquisition was long held within the walls of Valladolid, and the proceedings were marked with the cruelty and ferocity, which distinguish it from every other tribunal. The same town stands on the site of the ancient *Pintia*, a place mentioned by Ptolemy, at the confluence of the Esqueva and the Pisuerga. The trade of Valladolid is not great, it consists in ribbons, porcelain, perfumery and liqueurs. Salamanca, formerly *Salmantica*, celebrated for an university founded in the year 1239, possesses also twenty-five churches, a cathedral, a fine monument of the sixteenth century, and many edifices of every period and every style, on account of which it has been styled the Rome of Spain. The principal court, as the inhabitants call it, forms a regular square, it is encompassed with a portico consisting of ninety arcades, the houses are overtopped with stone balustrades. The one half of the bridge across the Tormes was built by the Romans, the other in the time of Philip the Fourth. Ciudad Rodrigo, an important fortress in the twelfth century, was more than once besieged in the last war. It appears from inscriptions and different remains of antiquity, that it was the *Lancia Transcudana* of the Romans, so called from its position on the right bank of the Agueda or, according to its ancient name, the *Cuda*.

Old Castille

Old Castille has been divided into five provinces; it is

bounded on the north by the Gulf of Gascony, on the west by the Asturias and the kingdom of Leon, on the south by New Castille, on the east by Arragon, and on the north-east by Navarre and the Vascongades. The Duero waters the country, and flows in the direction from east to west. Castille, it has been affirmed, was so called from the great number of castles (*castillos*), formerly its means of defence against the Moors, and the residences of petty princes that ambition armed against each other.

Santander. Santander, supposed to be the *Menosca* of the *Varduli*, is the largest town in the north of Old Castille; many vessels frequent the harbour, and it carries on a considerable trade in wine.

Burgos. Burgos, the *Bravum* of Ptolemy, and an ancient capital, abounds with convents and churches. The cathedral, a highly finished Gothic edifice, remarkable for its elegance nd the numerous small spires that rise above each other on every side, the remains of the house inhabited by the Cid, the arch of Fernandez Gonzale, the episcopal palace, and St. Mary's arch, which might be more correctly denominated the triumphal gate that leads to the Rio Arlanzon, are the principal ornaments or curiosities in Burgos. Beyond the walls are the tomb of the Cid, and the ruins of the palace formerly belonging to King Alphonso the Wise, a legislator, an astronomer, and the author of the *Alphonsine Tables*.

Soria. Soria, a small town watered by the Duero, stands on the site of the ancient Numantia, it possesses a considerable trade in wool.

Segovia. Segovia requires a more minute description; it is the ancient Segovia, a Celtiberian city embellished by Trajan; its name has not been changed. It stands on a hill of which the Eresma waters the base. The Arabic gate and the Alcazar, an old castle flanked with turrets, and built on a precipitous rock, may still give the stranger some notion of the flourishing state of Segovia under the Moorish domination. But these sink into insignificance, when compared or rather contrasted with the work of Trajan, the aqueduct with a double range of arcades, by which water has been conveyed into the town for seventeen hundred

BOOK CXXXIX.

years. It consists of a hundred and nine arches, the largest may be nearly ninety feet in height from the ground to the conduit, and the length of the space which they cover, exceeds 2530 feet. If Trajan raised a structure so costly, solid and gigantic, it may be readily admitted that Segovia, in ancient times, was a much more important place than it is at present. Other works of past days still serve to recall the ancient splendour of the town; but sumptuous temples have given way to time or the more destructive efforts of ignorance and barbarism. The cathedral is the finest modern edifice in the city; it was built in the sixteenth century, and its demi-gothic style announces the period of the regeneration of art. The styles of different periods are united in the Alcazar, and the interior is not the least curious part of the building. The principal stair-case is constructed in the best taste, most of the apartments are adorned with carved work and gilt wood, in the largest hall are contained a collection of wooden statues representing the kings of Oviedo, Leon and Castille, from Fabela the First who reigned in the eighth century to the time of queen Joan, surnamed the Foolish, the mother of Charles the Fifth. The Cid and his famous horse Babicio are also represented; one may see too the real or supposed saddle of the same courser, which contributed more than once to the victories of its master. The pupils in the royal school of artillery founded by Charles the Third, now meet in this ancient edifice. Segovia was formerly well known for its cloth, it possesses still a great many looms, four fullers' mills, and three large washing places for wool.

St. Ildefonse.

St. Ildefonse lies at two leagues from Segovia. Once a manor belonging to a society of monks, it was purchased by Philip the Fifth, who built a palace on the grounds, to which the king and his successors repaired in summer. The houses near it form a small town of four thousand inhabitants. The palace is of simple architecture, and within it are contained the best paintings which Christina of Sweden collected at Rome. It may be said of the gardens, as it has been said of others at Versailles, that art has conquered nature; the water which descends

from the neighbouring heights has been diverted at a great expense; a thousand channels supply lakes, cascades, fountains and spouts that rise above the trees, and surpass every thing of the kind in Europe; in short, Philip the Fifth imitating the prodigality of his ancestor, expended 4,500,000 piastres on his country seat, an enormous sum, by which the treasury was almost exhausted.

Avila.

Avila is the most southern province in Old Castille; the chief town or Avila derives its name from an Arabic word. It has a fine cathedral and college, but on the whole it may be considered a dismal and gloomy city encompassed with thick walls. It was the native town of St. Theresa and Gilles Gonzalez Davila.

Kingdom of Arragon, chief town.

The ancient kingdom of Arragon forms a single province bounded on the north by France, on the east by Catalonia and the kingdom of Valencia, and on the south by Old Castille. Tarazona, supposed to be the ancient *Augustobriga*, stands below the Sierra de Moncayo, it is divided into the high and low town. It may be doubted if the convent belonging to the Fathers of Mercy is entitled to the encomiums that have been lavished on its architecture, the faithful repair to it that they may adore the bodies of St. Boniface and St. Eusebius. Borja, a small place at no great distance from Tarazona, carries on a trade in flint, which abounds in the neighbourhood. Calatayud was built on the ruins of *Bilbilis*, on the banks of the Xalon, the birth-place of the poet Martial. Doroca appears to be the ancient *Agiria*, a city of the Celtiberi; the vast cavern in the vicinity, dug under the chain of Moncayo, receives the torrents that descend in rainy seasons, and thus secures the town against inundation. Albaracin, of which the name is evidently Arabic, is watered by the Guadalaviar, it rises in a fruitful and romantic valley enclosed by the mountains of Idubeda and the Sierra d'Albaracin. Teruel near the confluence of the Guadalaviar and the Rio Alambra, an ancient town without any remarkable buildings, has been distinguished by the industry of its inhabitants. Alcaniz was built by the Moors, its name signifies a *treasury* in the Arabic language, it is commanded by an old fortress near the Guadaloupe, and adorned

BOOK CXXXIX.

with a very fine square, that leads to the principal church. Barbastro, an old town encompassed with walls, stands on the banks of the Vero, a small river which divides it into two parts, that communicate with each other by a stone bridge. The Madragora flows near the little town of Benavarre, the same stream issues with a loud noise at irregular intervals from the depths of the earth, and rushing suddenly into the neighbouring vallies, destroys the harvest and the labours of the husbandman. Iaca, a strong hold at the base of the Pyrenees, is not more than six leagues from the frontiers of France, it lies in a beautiful valley that communicates with several others of a smaller size. Soe is only remarkable for an old castle in which Ferdinand the Catholic was born. Huesca or the ancient Osca which was raised to the rank of a metropolitan town in the sixth century, is pleasantly situated in the midst of a plain, that extends on the north to the Sierra Guara. The streets are well built, the longest or the Coso consists of uniform houses and different public buildings, such as the cathedral, the consistorial chamber, the university founded in the year 1354, the palace of Count Huaza, and the convents of St. Francis and St. Domingo.

Saragossa.

Saragossa or the ancient *Salduba* was erected into a military colony by Augustus under the name of *Cæsar Augusta*. The Spaniards call it Zaragoza; situated almost in the centre of Arragon, near the junction of the Ebro with the Huerva, it is the capital of the province, and likely to be for ever memorable in the annals of Spain from the resistance it made against the French troops, who took it by assault, and when masters of the walls, were obliged to besiege the houses. The bridge of Saragossa consists of seven arches, one of which is 180 feet wide. The *Holy street* is not only longer but broader than any other in the town. The church of Our Lady is superior in architectural beauty to the cathedral, and also more celebrated on account of its miracles; but the adjoining country has a monotonous appearance in spite of the most varied culture. An edifice in the neighborhood, the convent of the hieronomites, erected in the middle ages, exhibits a fine mixture of the Moorish and Italian styles.

Catalonia.

Catalonia, contiguous to France, Arragon and the kingdom of Murcia, is bathed on the east by the Mediterranean. A mountainous country and a great extent of coast appear to have had some influence on the character of the inhabitants, in other words to have rendered them more industrious, more attached to their native land, and consequently more watchful of its independence. The people of Marca Hispanica, as the province was then called, shook off the Moorish yoke in the tenth century. *Gotholaunia* from which the word Catalonia has been derived, was at the same time substituted for its ancient name. The counts of Catalonia originally vassals of France, first made themselves independent, and the people excited by their warlike spirit, carried their arms or their commerce into most countries then known. Lastly, the house of Catalonia having become powerful from alliances, was able to unite on a single head all the crowns of Spain. The activity which distinguishes the Catalonian, his patience of labour, his pride that makes him submit to many privations rather than become a servant, or engage in servile employments in his native country, his language, a Provençal dialect unintelligible to other Spaniards, render Catalonia different in many respects from every other province in the kingdom. Agriculture has made greater progress; trees are not prohibited as in some other provinces; the woods and groves near the towns heighten the effect of the scenery, and afford a grateful shade against the heat of the sun, an advantage of which Arragon has been deprived.

Junquera.

Junquera at the base of the Pyrenees, the most eastern burgh towards the extremity of these mountains, was called *Juncaria* by the Romans from the great number of rushes (*stipa tenuissima*), that grow in the neighbourhood. The industry of the inhabitants is mostly confined to their cork manufactories, from which they derive a considerable profit. Figueras, supposed to possess the strongest citadel in Europe, is regularly built and situated in a fruitful country at the base of the hills which separate the course of the Muga from the Marol. Two roads meet in Figueras, the one leads to Roses, a strong place on the coast with a large but not very safe anchorage, the other to Gerone, which

BOOK CXXXIX.

the poet Prudentius, a writer of the fourth century, calls the small and the wealthy town of *Gerunda*. Little of its wealth now remains, it stands at the foot of a hill, it is commanded by the small fort of Montjoui; all the other fortifications were destroyed by the French in 1808. The only remarkable monuments are the Arabic baths within the convent of the Capuchins, and the cathedral of which the front cannot be too much commended. There are soap works and one or two cotton manufactories in the town.

Urgel.

Urgel, or as it is called in Spain, *Seo de Urgel*, an episcopal city, well known during the last Spanish revolution as the place where the apostolic junta assembled, rises in a valley on the Pyrenees, on the banks of the Segra. Balaguer and its strong castle are situated below it on the same river; it is the ancient town of Bergusia, to which place, according to Livy, the Romans sent ambassadors two centuries before the vulgar era, to persuade the inhabitants to break off their alliances with the Carthagenians. The Segra also waters Lerida, or as Lucan calls it "*Ilerda* on the peaceful streams of the *Sicoris*." Livy calls it by the ancient Greek name of *Athanagia*, which signifies immortal. Lerida rises on the declivity of a hill, it is surrounded by a very fruitful country, the banks of the river are shaded by poplars and other trees. The town still possesses some remains of ancient splendour, among others the gate of *Los Botes*, a Roman building. Cervera, although the largest of the four towns of the same name, is a small place surrounded with walls and defended by an ancient castle. The university may be considered the finest edifice, it was founded in the year 1717. Igualada on the banks of the Reo-Noya, is well built, the inhabitants are frugal and industrious.

Mount Serrat.

Mount Serrat rises at the distance of five leagues from the last place; its numerous peaks tower into the air, and from their appearance its name has been derived, which signifies the *serrated mountain*. The caverns in its schistous and calcareous mass are remarkable for the yellow alabaster deposited within them in the form of stalactites. The mountain may be about eight leagues in circumference, and its summit is almost always concealed by clouds

Fourteen hermitages are situated between the base and the top; the magnificent convent of the Benedictines may be about half way from the summit. It was there that Ignatius Loyala, anticipating the great events to which he believed himself called, consecrated his sword to the virgin. The Cardenet which throws itself into the Llobregat, flows at no great distance from Mount Serrat; a canal serves as a communication between the two rivers, and runs through the town of Manresa, the inhabitants of which carry on a trade in silk and gun-powder. A very magnificent church may be seen on the left bank of the Cardenet; it was built by the Jesuits above a grotto, to which the founder of their order retired and composed his Spiritual Exercises.

Cardona.

The small town of *Cardona*, at some leagues to the north of Manresa, was the ancient *Udura*, at present only remarkable for the rock-salt mines in the vicinity, but it is difficult to conceive a more splendid spectacle than these large quarries exhibiting saline deposits nearly four hundred feet in height, and which when illumed with the sun's rays, display the brilliant colours of the rainbow. The strata of rock salt are in some places as transparent as crystal, in others they are blue or bright red or mixed with gray argil. The variety of vivid colours, the abrupt sides, the prominences and summits in this imposing mass, the only one of the kind in Europe, render it not unlike a mountain of precious stones, surpassing in magnificence whatever has been imagined by the natives of the east concerning the abodes of fays and genii. The geological situation of these salt mines was long unknown to naturalists; but it has now been ascertained that the vast prominence which they form, or a space nearly twelve thousand feet in length, and four thousand in breadth, contains deposits of gypsum and argil arranged in vertical strata, and separating in some places the layers of salt. These substances together with sandstone are found in the quartz and calcareous rocks of the surrounding mountain, which belongs to the intermediate formation.*

Solsona.

A road from Cardona passes between frightful precipices

* See the memoir on the rock salt of Cardona by M. Cordier, Journal de Physique, tome 82.

BOOK CXXXIX.

and through a thick wood at the end of which may be seen the romantic town of Solsona, the *Setelsis* of Ptolemy. It rises near the extremity of a mountainous group, on the banks of the Rio Negro. The neighbouring districts are well cultivated, and the inhabitants of the town manufacture cutlery and hardware. A chain of mountains connected with the Pyrenean range, and separating the river Llobregat from the sea, extends between Solsona and Vich, an ancient town built on the ruins of *Ausa*, where the inhabitants resisted the Romans a hundred and eighty-five years before the vulgar era. The streets are broad, some however are not paved, and most of them are very steep. The principal square is surrounded with arcades, and the shops, coffee-houses, and other places of amusement, render it a place of resort for the town's people. The copper and coal mines in the neighbouring mountains, the linen and cotton manufactures within the walls, maintain the commerce of the inhabitants.

Mataro.

As to the towns on the coast of Catalonia, Mataro, or as Pliny calls it *Illuro*, is the capital of a maritime district. It carries on a considerable coasting trade, many vessels repair to the harbour; the inhabitants manufacture a great quantity of lace, and the products of the distilleries are held in some repute. The old town stands on an eminence; ancient walls, gates and other remains of antiquity still remain; the streets are narrow but not so crooked as many in other Spanish cities. The new town, formerly a suburbs, is now much larger than the old; it is better planned and better built, the houses are not inelegant, and many of them are adorned with fresco paintings.

Barcelona.

Whether the stranger travels along the road that leads from Mataro to Barcelona, or proceeds to the same capital by sea, he is struck with the beauty of its position, the regularity of the buildings, and the impulse given to commerce by the activity of the population. There are not fewer than seven hospitals, four public libraries, eight public schools, an institution for the deaf and dumb, an academy of painting, schools of pharmacy, surgery and medicine, and lastly, a society for the encouragement of arts and sciences. The buildings set apart for these schools, aca-

demies and societies, are not unworthy the large city of Barcelona; but the finest edifices are those reserved for public or religious institutions; among the former are the palace of audience, in which the celebrated archives of Arragon, and other documents connected with that kingdom, as old as the eighth century, are deposited, the town-house, an elegant building, the palace of the captain-general of the customs, the front of which has been adorned with two rows of columns, the lonja or treasury, admirable for the simplicity of its architecture, and lastly, the theatre, perhaps the finest of the kind in Spain. The convent of Santa Claira is all that remains of the ancient palace that belonged to the counts of Barcelona, and the kings of Arragon. The cloister in the convent of Mercy is very large and of finished workmanship. The church of St. Michael, once the temple of Neptune, is still adorned with an ancient Mosaic pavement. The cathedral is a Gothic building, but bold, simple and majestic; an alabaster mausoleum may be seen in a chapel under the church, it contains the remains of St. Eulalia, the tutelar saint of the town. The church of St. Mary is after the cathedral, the finest in Barcelona. It is not difficult to trace the successive additions made to the town; the old streets are narrow and crooked, but the new are straight; the modern houses consist of four or at most five stories, they are adorned with balconies, and are mostly laid out with considerable taste. Many Roman monuments are still to be found in the modern Barcelona or ancient Barcino, which, it has been supposed, was founded by Hamilcar, the ancestor of Annibal. The fort Monjuich or Montjoui, which guards the town on the south, while the citadel defends it on the north, stands on the site of a temple dedicated to Jupiter. Barcelonetta has been built near the mole that extends into the sea, it forms merely a suburbs of Barcelona. The port, although regularly cleaned, is much encumbered with ooze and pebbles; it has been for a long time inaccessible to large ships, an inconvenience which has hitherto had little effect on the commerce of the place; the products of industry consist in cloths, silk lace and excellent armour. The consequences of the epidemical disease by which the

BOOK CXXXIX.

population was more than decimated in 1821, are now almost forgotten.

Falls of St. Michael.

It would be an omission to say nothing of the situation of Barcelona, or the varied scenery in the neighbourhood, forming a landscape of lofty hills, thick woods, precipices, torrents and foaming cataracts, likely to be appreciated by those who can find subjects of study in the beauties of nature.

Road to Tarragona

Many monuments of Roman power are seen in the country between the capital of Catalonia and Tarragona; the remains of an aqueduct near Villafranca form a line between two steep mountains, the ruins of an ancient fortress are situated near the Villa-nova, and numerous sepulchres dug in rocks, exhibiting, if it may be so said, the impressions of unnumbered human bodies, indicate the site of *Carthago Vetus*, a town mentioned by Ptolemy, a triumphal arch rises beyond the burgh of Vendrell, and near Torre-dam-Barra, a majestic tomb, which according to popular tradition contains the ashes of the Scipios. From the last place may be seen Tarragona apparently extending into the sea, and which different antiquarians consider *Tarraco*, a place that in the time of the Romans gave its name to the largest province in ancient Hispania. The town stands on an eminence six hundred feet above the level of the sea; it is defended by walls flanked with bastions, and within their enclosure are many ancient monuments together with some fine modern buildings. The Roman aqueduct is still kept in good repair, uniting utility with its historical recollections, it furnishes wholesome and limpid water to the whole population. The cathedral, of which the architecture appears to have been borrowed from the Moors, is certainly the largest building in the town. Tarragona was exposed to many disasters in consequence of its resistance to the French armies, but it has now become more industrious and more flourishing than formerly. The harbour begun in 1800, affords at present an easy entrance to ships, and a safe retreat against every storm. The wool, the fisheries, the coasting trade of Tarragona, and the commercial relations between the same place and distant countries are the

guarantees of its prosperity. The town was the birthplace of Paul Orosa, a disciple of St. Augustine.

Reuss.

Reuss, a place founded by the clergy of Tarragona, was only a burgh at the end of the last century, but its commerce and industry now place it among the number of important towns. It carries on a trade in glass, it possesses a hundred and fifty tan-pits, a hundred and twenty machines for carding cotton, eighty-four for spinning silk, six bleach-fields, as many hat manufactories, fifteen different soap works, and twenty for different sorts of dying.

Tortosa.

Tortosa or the ancient *Dertosa*, formerly one of the largest cities in the Tarraconensis, stands near the southern extremity of the province, between two mountainous chains on the banks of the Ebro. The Spaniards having taken it from the Moors in the year 1149, the latter collected a great force, and laid siege to the town; the besieged exhausted by a long resistance, were about to give up the place for want of hands to defend it, when the women assumed a warlike dress, were provided with arms, and drove away the Mussulmans. A military ceremony in which the women took precedence of the men, served until lately to perpetuate the memory of the event. Tortosa is at present reckoned one of the strong places in Spain, it is also the capital of a maritime district. The finest edifices in the town are the cathedral and the episcopal palace.

Kingdom of Valencia.

The kingdom of Valencia forms a province bounded by Catalonia, Arragon, New Castile and Murcia. The coasts are more extensive than those in Catalonia, the land yields rich harvests, and abounds in mines and different sorts of marble.

Character of the Valencians.

The Valencian is not only laborious and industrious, he possesses a lively imagination, and his uniform gaiety or cheerfulness cannot be wholly subdued by misfortunes. They unite, says Fischer,* the opposite qualities that are remarked in the inhabitants of the north and in the inhabitants of the south, the bodily strength of the Norwegian with the impetuosity of the Provençal. They are fond of

* Gemælde von Valencia, herausgegeben von Ch. Aug. Tescher.

religious ceremonies, festivals, amusements and every sort of bodily exercise. It is inspiring to see the ardour with which they dance to the accompaniment of the tambourine and the *dulzayna*, an arabic instrument, not unlike the clarionet, used at present in no other Spanish province. Their dialect, derived from the Provençal, although soft and agreeable, particularly in the mouths of the women, is not destitute of energy. The *Fiera*, a very ancient ballad, which the peasant sings to the sound of his guitar, expresses the woes of love in harmonious modulations and in the continued concord of the accompaniment. A fondness for finery or display in dress is common to every class of people in Valencia. The bonnets of the peasantry are like those still used by the Phrygians; their shirts are bound by a girdle, and descend in the form of a tunic; sandals attached with cords are worn instead of shoes, lastly a large piece of cloth falls over the shoulders, and completes the costume. In festivals and gala days they appear in velvet, a broad hat encircled with ribbons protects them from the sun, while their mantles and buskins are adorned with strings of gold or silk. The country women are distinguished by their grace and gaiety from the inhabitants of the other provinces; they never appear without their veils, and wear even in festivals the same sort of bodice that was worn by their ancestors.

The road from Tortosa leads to Peniscola, a frontier town in Valencia; it stands on a rock that rises from the sea to the height of 240 feet and a belt of sand, at least thirty feet wide in its narrowest part, unites it with the continent; but the same belt was sometimes covered with water in tempestuous weather, before a dike was raised by the inhabitants. The town thus fortified by its position was considered impregnable until marshal Soult took possession of it in November 1811. The ruins of a church belonging to the templars may still be seen; it was to it that the antipope Peter Luna, who had taken the title of Benedict the Thirteenth, fled for safety, he died in the same place in the year 1423. A natural grotto into which the waves are precipitated with a loud noise, has been called the *Bufador of pope Luna* in honour of the same cele-

Towns.

brated person. Castellon, surnamed La Planta, to distinguish it from two cities of the same name, the one in Valencia, the other in Catalonia, is a well built town about a league from the sea, and at a short distance from the Rio Mijares, over which a bridge of thirteen arches has been lately erected. Francisco Ribalta, the celebrated painter, was a native of the town. Segorba has been considered the *Segobriga* mentioned by Pliny; but the dolphins represented in the medals of the same place seem to indicate that the ancient town of the Suessetani was not far from the sea.*

Valencia.

Valencia, which gives its name to the province, is one of the finest and largest cities in Spain. The Spaniards still call it by the ancient name of *Valentia*, but the antiquities consists merely of imperfect inscriptions and mutilated columns. The Gaudalaviar passes through the town; although at no great distance from its embouchure, it is very narrow, because the streams are diverted and serve to irrigate the fertile districts watered by the river. Bridges lead from the town to the different suburbs. The cathedral, an ancient mosque, may be remarked on account of a silver altar, and the pictures that adorn the chapels. The Arabic baths, although disfigured by modern additions, enable us to judge of the manner in which the Moors laid out these edifices. The custom-house, a fine building, forms nearly a side of the square St. Domingo. The *lonja* or treasury, a Gothic edifice in the market-place, is crowned by a range of battlements rising above a hall 120 feet long, eighty broad and sixty in height. The elegance of the private houses, at the same time that it announces the wealth, is creditable to the taste of the inhabitants. The same town was the first in Spain, in which *serenas* were established, or companies of police that walked the streets at night, watched over the public safety, and warned the inhabitants in cases of fire. These useful institutions have been adopted in all the large Spanish towns since the last century. Lastly, it was also the first place

* Compare D'Anville with the work entitled Medallas de Espana by P. Florez.

BOOK CXXXIX.

that participated in the benefits of printing; so early as the year 1474, the inhabitants distinguished themselves in the new art, and even at present it possesses a decided superiority in this respect over all the towns in the kingdom. The same cause may account in some measure for the rank which it holds among the cities that have produced celebrated men in literature and the arts. The institutions connected with education or instruction are seven seminaries, an university, two public libraries, a botanical garden, a great many elementary schools, a military school for cavalry, a royal academy of liberal arts, and a society of agriculture and rural economy.

Neighbourhood of Valencia.

Whether a stranger leaves Valencia by the gate Serranos, of which the semi-gothic architecture and the two massive octagonal towers accord perfectly with the flanked walls that surround the town, or proceeds by the *Puerta del Real*, the triumphal gate, along the fine walk of the *Alameda*, he is equally struck with the beauty of the country, the richness of the cultivation, and the luxuriance of the vegetation throughout the whole extent that the eye can reach.

Two places may be mentioned between Valencia and Alicante,—Gandia, a small maritime town, situated in the most fruitful and finest part of the province, and Denia, a port now insignificant, but celebrated in ancient times under the name of Dianium,* from a temple consecrated to Diana, of which some remains may be observed. Alicante still retains an Arabic name, it is built near the site of the ancient *Lucentum*, and extends on a fine beach under several hills. A castle commands the nearest of these heights, the rocks which form it, threaten to give way and to destroy the town. The harbour is safe and commodious, and the large and deep bay might serve as an anchoring place for several fleets. Orihuella near the confines of Murcia was the ancient *Orcelis*, a town supposed to have been founded by the Carthaginians; it stands on a fruitful plain watered by the Segura, and at the base of a lofty calcareous hill. Xicona, a place of some trade, may be about twelve leagues to the north-east of Orihuella. Last-

Alicante.

* Strabo, Book III. c. 4, § 6.

ly, San Felipe formerly Xatina, which was destroyed because the inhabitants resisted Philip the Fifth, and afterwards embellished by the same prince, who gave it the name that it now bears, is situated below a mountain, on which may be seen an ancient castle, built first by the Romans, afterwards by the Goths and Moors. San Felipe possesses a considerable trade in cotton and silk manufactures, and according to tradition, it occupies the site of *Sætabis*, famous in ancient times for linen.

New Castile.

New Castile forms a large division of Spain, it is bounded by the kingdom of Valencia, Arragon, Old Castile, Estremadura, Andalusia and Murcia; it comprehends the provinces of Cuenca, Guadalaxara, Madrid, Toledo and La Mancha.

Province of Cuenca.

Few towns of any consequence are situated in the province of Cuenca. San Clemente in the south, may be perhaps the largest; it possesses a Latin seminary. Huete, a small and finely situated town in the north, bears the name of the stream that waters it. Cuenca in the centre, or the ancient *Valeria*, near the confluence of the Huecar and the Jucar, rises on a mountain of which the sides form lofty precipices above these rivers. It contains fourteen churches, two hospitals and three seminaries, but it was formerly more populous than at present. It is the native town of the architect Henera, and the celebrated jesuit Lewis de Molina, perhaps the most subtile casuist of his fraternity.

Province of Guadalaxara.

Seguenza in the province of Guadalaxara contains nothing remarkable except a Gothic cathedral, three hundred and thirteen feet long, a hundred and twelve broad, and as many in height. It was in ancient times the Celtiberian town of *Seguntia*. Guadalaxara or Guadolajara, although the capital, is an old Moorish town, ill built and enclosed with walls on the right bank of the Rio Henares. It still possesses some of the cloth manufactories in which its riches formerly consisted; the largest of these manufactories belongs to the king, but their products are not in so great repute as they once were.

Province of Madrid.

The capital of Madrid adds considerably to the importance of the province. The town, it is said, was built near the site of *Mantua*, a city belonging to the Carpetani.

BOOK CXXXIX.

While the Goths were masters of the country, it was a mere village under the archbishops of Toledo. It was included in the number of royal towns in the fourteenth century, and obtained the title of capital by a decree of Philip the Second. It is higher than any other metropolis in Europe, being 1800 feet above the level of the sea, a circumstance that partly accounts for the comparative coldness of the temperature. The climate has some resemblance to those in the north; in summer the heat is oppressive, the centigrade thermometer reaches often to forty degrees; in winter the cold is keen and piercing, and the mercury in the same thermometer descends sometimes so low as eight degrees below the freezing point. The houses are ill adapted to shelter the inhabitants against the cold or the humidity of the north wind, for they consist mostly of high apartments, in many places not air-tight, and seldom provided with a fire or chimney. The word Madrid is of Arabic origin, and signifies a *well-aired house*, but the variableness of the climate gives rise to phthisis, putrid fevers and a sort of dangerous cholic, which, according to many, can only be successfully treated by the physicians of the country.* It contains besides some old houses built of wood, and decorated according to an ancient custom with paintings representing bull-fights and persons in the costume of the sixteenth century; but the modern quarters of the town are provided with brick or stone houses and broad streets not inferior to any in other European capitals. The Alcala is the largest street in Madrid, and the most remarkable for the number of public buildings, ten carriages may pass abreast in any part of it. Of the forty-two squares, it may be only necessary to mention the square of the Royal Palace, adorned by that large and imposing edifice, the square of the sun, where the five principal streets terminate, and a place of resort both for the idle and the busy; lastly, the great place (Plaza Major) in the centre of the town, formerly frequented on account of the bull-fights and the public festivals at which the king assisted from the balcony of the small palace that has been since converted into a hall

* See Fischer, Reise nach Hispanien.

or the royal academy of history. The Cevada is the place to which the people run with the greatest pleasure, because it is there that criminals are executed, but the most delightful to a real Spaniard, is the one that serves as an arena for bull-fights.

Bull fights.

Whoever has not been a witness of these spectacles, where the blood of man is mingled with the blood of an infuriated beast, can form but an imperfect idea of them. It is still more difficult to conceive the ardour with which the people, men and women of the highest rank, rush into the enclosure prepared for these dangerous combats. The artisan, insensible to the wants of his family, leaves his work, and carries his furniture or best clothes to a mount of piety, that he may procure a sufficient sum to pay for his place in the *corrida* (circus). A surgeon and a priest may be seen in attendance near the amphitheatre, apparently very indifferent about the passing scene, until it has been announced to them that the *toreador* is mortally wounded, the one then administers the resources of his art, and the other the consolations of religion. A combat that is exhibited gratuitously to the people, serves as a prelude to the one for which the spectators pay. The first rays of the sun have hardly illumined the horizon, when the people appear in crowds at the entrance of the circus, to see the bull let loose into the arena, where tormented by a multitude who have passed the night in taverns, in order to get a good place at the combat, it wounds the fool-hardy drunkards that venture to attack it, until the *matador* dispatches it, and puts an end to the fight. In the mean time preparations are made for the principal spectacle, the first places are filled with the ladies and gentlemen of Madrid, and the others with the lower orders, who can afford to pay for their amusement. The box of the king is situated opposite the gate by which the bull is driven into the arena, and another in front of the king's belongs to the municipal authorities. Before the combat commences, an officer bows to the king or to the place reserved for him, and then receives his instructions from the master of the ceremonies. The latter gives the signal by throwing up a number of keys. The silent crowd expect the long wished mo-

ment. The *picadores*, (prickers) clad in silk jackets, bespangled with gold, and adorned with ribbons of every colour, and chamois pantaloons lined with iron from the heel to the haunch, armed with long and light spears, and mounted on horses with fillets bound round their eyes, march in file to the accompaniment of trumpets before the two principal boxes, and range themselves opposite the gates. The *chulas* or tormentors in the costume of Figaro, carrying long scarlet scarfs, pass between the posts of the balustrade, which separates the arena and the spectators. The chulos are replaced by the *matadores*, holding a long sword in one hand, and the muleta in the other, a sort of small banner that they use as a buckler. After having been presented by a municipal officer to the prince and the master of the ceremonies, they retire in the same order that they entered.

A flourish of trumpets precedes the commencement of the combat. The gates open, and the picadores with couched lances prepare for the fight. The animal springs into the enclosure, runs round every part of it, and seeks in vain to escape. The appearance of twelve or fifteen hundred persons waving their handkerchiefs and their hats, the shouts of joy that accompany its entrance, frighten or enrage it. It strikes the earth with its horns, beats its tail against its sides, and attacks one of the picadores, who receives it with his lance, supporting it with all his strength against the omoplate of the animal; but as the iron point at the end of the lance can only gall the bull, it becomes more furious, and rushes against each of the picadores. If the men are not very dexterous, or if their lances break, they are dismounted, and their gored horses fall dead on the arena. The horsemen themselves, although their limbs are covered with plates of iron, might also be destroyed, if the chulos did not run forward and turn away the animal by waving their silken banners. When a sufficient number of horses have been killed, the picadores retire and leave the place to the chulos, to whom the perilous task is committed of plunging the *banderilla* into the body of the animal, at the junction of the neck and shoulders. The banderilla is a small staff about two feet long, furnished at

one extremity with a bent spike, and at the other are attached many squibs and crackers. The light banderillo remains in front of the animal, passes his arm between the horns, and fixes the *banderilla*, but if he miss his mark, he is infallibly wounded or tossed into the air by his furious adversary, while shouts of *viva* are a thousand times repeated by the crowd. Tormented by the iron and the fire, the bull bellows, bounds, turns and fights with desperate fury, when a flourish of trumpets announces its approaching fate. Assisted by four chulos, the matador holding in one hand a drawn sword, and in the other an unfurled muleta, presents himself with great gravity. The flag which he displays, attracts the attention of the animal, the two adversaries look at each other an instant, the one to satisfy its fury, the other to ward off its attacks. The spectators are all attention, the bull springs forward, but only tearing the light silk, passes under the left arm of the matador, who, with his right hand strikes the sword into its withers, and separating two vertebræ, dispatches his victim at a single blow. The victor is then hailed with the applauses of the whole assembly, and if he has the address not to leave hold of his sword until he presents it to the people, the ladies crown him with flowers, and the gentlemen load him with piastres. But if the animal does not die near the matador, or reaches any other place than that prescribed by the rules of art, hisses and groans are his only reward. If the bull kills one matador, the people continue shouting *bravo*, until it falls by the hand of another. These sanguinary spectacles, not unknown in the most remote antiquity, and common in the days of chivalry, have retained something of the barbarous gallantry of the middle ages; the matador presents with much grace to his mistress or to a noble dame in the assembly, the ribbons placed on the back of the animal to indicate the colour of its breed. These representations, however solemnly conducted, impress the stranger with no favourable idea of Spanish civilization; but the people are not satisfied until ten or twelve bulls and about twenty horses have fallen; indeed, as a writer who resided long in Spain, and was frequently a witness of these spectacles, affirms, the combat can hardly be considered complete unless

BOOK CXXXIX.

a matador has lost his life. But these accidents do not happen so often as might be expected, fortunately for those not familiar with such scenes, or not thinking the death of a man a very agreeable spectacle.

King of Spain and the Indies.

Madrid was bombarded in 1808 by Napoleon, who adopted that method of compelling the people to acknowledge the king of Spain and the Indies, a title which he had conferred on his brother. The same brother of the emperor adorned and improved the capital of Spain. It was he who levelled with the ground the old houses in the neighbourhood of the new palace, and rendered the edifice worthy of being ranked among the finest royal residences in Europe. The interior has been decorated with valuable paintings, and the twelve mirrors in the halls are said to be the largest in the continent. The royal arsenal rises near the principal front of the palace, and an elegant arcade extends along the eastern extremity. The armour of queen Isabella is still preserved in the same collection; but M. Reichard mentions among its curiosities the sword of Francis the First, forgetting that it was the only trophy retained by Napoleon, of all the victories which he gained in Spain.* The royal library, valuable from its manuscripts, medals and antiquities, contains 150,000 volumes. The royal museum of natural history, and the royal academy of San Fernando, founded by Philip the Fifth, are situated in the street of Alcala. M. Mariano de Caberizo, a Spanish writer, has added the authority of his name to a popular fiction, he affirms that the French took away whatever was most precious in the museum of natural history to enrich their own in Paris. The Paris museum need not be augmented with the fabulous spoils which the author enumerates, for if the skeleton of Mastodonte be excepted, it is as much superior to the other in the number and selection of the different articles, and in the order in which they are classed, as the latter is superior to other museums in the French departments. It is unnecessary to mention the places of education at Madrid, not because they are insufficient in point of number, but because the sphere of their utility is very limited. The

Arsenal.

* See the Traveller's Guide through Europe by Reichard. 1827.

charitable institutions are more important; they are richly endowed, and the buildings reserved for them are spacious and cleanly kept. In the general hospital, the largest in Madrid, many unfortunate persons receive every sort of assistance, and in cases of disease, the best medical treatment the capital can afford. The churches are less remarkable for their architecture than for the number of their paintings.

Walks.

Madrid is not more than two leagues and a half in circumference; the public walks are the garden of the *Retiro*, las *Delicias* and the *Prado*, a very fine plantation, in which the principal avenue is often crowded with equipages, while the others serve as a place of resort for the burgesses. Two monuments, not unworthy of any capital may be mentioned, these are the triumphal arch of Alcala and the gate of Toledo; the former, like those of Atocha and Segovia, leads to pleasant walks beyond the walls, and the other to the majestic bridge over the Manzanares. In summer the river may be easily forded, which accounts for the advice of a jester, who counselled the king to sell the bridge, and purchase water with the money; but in winter the abundant rains, and in spring the sudden melting of the snow accumulated on the mountains, add so much to the breadth and impetuosity of its course, that the bridge is neither too long nor too solid.

Bridge of the Manzanares.

Industry.

The Spanish metropolis is a place of trade, the inhabitants manufacture woolen stuffs of every colour, carpets, silk printed linen and muslins; government keeps up at a great expense very extensive porcelain works; lastly, a fair is held in the town, which lasts from the 21st of September to the 4th of October.

Environs of Madrid.

Madrid stands in the midst of a sandy and sterile plain surrounded with mountains; but in the neighbourhood some places are not destitute of beauty. The Manzanares waters the *Prado*, the much admired palace, where Philip the Fourth found the duchess of Albuquerque, his mistress, in the arms of the duke de Medina de las Tores. Kings, like other men, are liable to such accidents, but Philip bore it not with becoming moderation, and the lovers might

have speedily atoned for their crime with their lives, had not the royal rage been restrained by an attendant.

Few other towns of any consequence are situated in the same province; the ancient *Completum* was ruined in the tenth century, Alcala, however, at no great distance from it on the opposite bank of the Henares, is celebrated not only for its university, the next in importance after the one at Salamanca, but also on account of several distinguished townsmen, among whom may be mentioned the historian Antonio Solis, the naturalist La Camara and the immortal Cervantes. In a different direction or at eight leagues to the north-west of Madrid, is situated the Escurial de Abayo, an ecclesiastical burgh, of which the lands belonged to the hieronomites, for whom the superstitious Philip the Second built the Escurial, an immense edifice, at once a monastery and a palace. The Spanish word *escurial* signifies an *exhausted mine.* It is not improbable, therefore, that there was formerly some sort of mine in the place, or that the name was applied to indicate the great size of the building, not certainly to designate a quarry, but the enormous quantity of granite used in the construction, forming a mass, which from its extent might be compared with the works of nature.* The building forms a rectangle seven hundred and forty feet in length, and five hundred and eighty in breadth; the height from the base to the cornice exceeds sixty feet. The superstitious Philip, terrified after having lost the battle at St. Quentin, and not knowing to which of the saints he should address his vows, swore if on any future day, he should retrieve his lost fortunes, to raise the most magnificent convent in the world to the saint whose name then appeared in the calendar. Having gained a victory with the assistance of the English, he hastened to perform his vows; the day on which he was successful, was the anniversary of the saint and martyr Lorenzo, a site for

* We have adhered to the correct meaning of the word Escurial, but M. Menano supposes the name of the palace to be derived from the Latin word Esculetum, a forest of oaks in allusion to the lofty trees, that formerly shaded the solitude of San Lorenzo. See Dicionario Geografico e Statistico de Espagna y Portuga, the word Escurial.

the building was therefore chosen near the village of San Lorenzo. The saint had been burnt to death on a gridiron, that circumstance determined the form of the edifice; gridirons appear in profusion among the architectural ornaments, and the same instruments are sowed or embroidered on the sacerdotal habits. Four towers, each two hundred and sixty feet high, erected at the four angles of the building, represent the feet of the gridiron, the apartments reserved for the king form the handle, and the eleven square courts into which the interior is divided, indicate the spaces between the iron bars. The wonder of Spain, as it has been called, cost the founder, L.2,500,000, but the same wonder is one of the most gloomy and dismal residences that can well be imagined. The pictures that decorate the apartments, the chapel that serves as a place of interment for the royal family, the relics and the gardens, may be passed over in silence. The library contains nearly 30,000 volumes and more than 4000 Latin, Greek, Hebrew and Arabic manuscripts.

The indolence and apathy of the Castilians are more apparent in the province of Madrid than in any other. It may be natural for the inhabitants themselves to be of a different opinion, but how else can they account for the small number of manufactories, and particularly for the inferior quality of their products? The places in the vicinity of the capital do not resemble those near other great cities in Europe; the same movement and activity so apparent in the neighbourhood of London or Paris can nowhere be observed. It is only necessary to leave Madrid to be transported from the opulence and luxury of the capital to the wretchedness and misery that prevail in the country. The character given long ago of the Castilian peasantry by a German traveller,* is equally applicable to them at present; revolutions continued with little interruption for a period of thirty years have made no alteration in their manners and habits. The instruments of labour, their dress, their food proclaim the poverty and ignorance in which they are suffered to languish. Inveterate prejudice opposes itself to every improvement in

* Fischer, Reise nach Hispanien.

BOOK CXXXIX.

agriculture and the mechanical arts. But this is not all, the disgust, which the sight of so wretched a population produces, is heightened by their filth; for from the dear price of linen, the trouble of washing it, and the notion that it is sooner worn out by being washed, the men never change their shirts more than once a month. The necessary consequences of the custom are a degree of uncleanliness that occasions cutaneous diseases and the excessive multiplication of vermin. It is usual, not only in villages but in the populous parts of great towns, to see men and women destroying the vermin which they find on each other.

Manners of the people at Madrid.

The siesta, a custom perhaps necessary from the heat of the climate, has been adopted since time immemorial in every part of Spain. At Madrid, the shopkeepers shut their shops from one to three o'clock in the afternoon, the workmen leave their work, all the inhabitants are asleep. In the evening, on the contrary, all are eager to enjoy the cool air, those who are idle, hasten to the public walks; the *cortejos* or gallants accompany the fair, and are continually engaged in performing those assiduous and minute attentions, which seldom fail to please a Spanish lady. Such attentions the women of Spain consider indispensable, who, it is certain, have the art of captivating the men, and binding them when once subdued in chains that are only broken by length of years. The bonds imposed by the women, the innumerable services they exact, not the vigilance of the police, have kept Madrid comparatively pure from the scandal of prostitution.

Province of Toledo.

The province of Toledo is not far distant from the banks of the Tagus. Talavera de la Reina, below the confluence of the Tagus and the Alberche, may be considered a burgh or small town, the streets are crooked and ill built; it appears probable from many remains of antiquity that it was the ancient *Libora*. It boasts of having given birth to the jesuit Mariana, an historian and an astronomer. Alonzo de Herrara gained some celebrity under its walls in the battles between the French and Anglo-Portuguese armies on the 27th and 28th of July 1809.

Toledo.

Sylva, a Spanish historian, whose etymological researches are very frivolous, supposes that Toledo was founded five

hundred and forty years before the Christian era by a Jewish colony, that called the town *Toledath* or the mother of nations.* The Tagus, which flows beneath the town amidst arid and naked rocks, the Moorish port on the same river, the elegant gate built by the Arabs, and the position of the town on a granite rock, form a sad contrast with the interior, where the only remarkable edifices are the cathedral, an ancient mosque, and the Alcazar, built by the Moors, repaired by Alphonso the Tenth, and embellished by Charles the Fifth, and the Cardinal Lorenzana. These edifices rise majestically above old buildings, tortuous and dirty streets. The royal residence of Aranjuez, nearly seven leagues above Toledo, is surrounded with extensive and magnificent gardens; the Tagus washes the castle wall, and forms a cascade down an artificial terrace as broad as the space between the banks. A small town, built with scrupulous exactness after a court plan, rises near the palace.

Province of La Mancha.

The southern part of New Castile forms the province of La Mancha, in which three cities are contained, Alcaraz, Almagro and Civdad-Real, the capital. In the first, which stands on an eminence near the banks of the Guadarmena, are seen the remains of a Roman aqueduct; the second, situated in a very fertile part of the province, indicates by its name an Arabic origin; many persons from different parts of the kingdom, repair to its fair, which is held every year on St. Bartholomew's day. Civdad-Real, famous for the tribunal of the *Santa-Hermandad*, established by Ferdinand the Second in 1249, was also important for its manufactories and the number of its population. It contains three hospitals and a fine church dedicated to the virgin of Prado, the tutelar saint of the town.

Estremadura.

Leaving the fruitful but ill-cultivated territory of La Mancha, the plains destitute of trees, the marshes and pastures covered with flocks, we may enter Estremadura. The name of the province has been derived from two Latin words, *Extrema ora*; the boundary of the conquests gained by Alphonso the Tenth in the thirteenth century, the western ex-

* See the Dictionary of Minano, who gives it the same origin.

BOOK CXXXIX.

tremity still forms the boundary between Portugal and Spain. The Tagus and the Guadiana flowing parallel to each other from east to west, divide Estremadura into three portions, and the mountains of Mames and Montanches into two nearly equal parts. During the Roman empire it was the richest country in Spain, but now, the poorest and the worst peopled.

Character of the inhabitants.

The inhabitants of Estremadura are more taciturn and grave than the other Spaniards, qualities which depend less perhaps on their physical constitution than on the nature of the country they inhabit; steep mountains, rapid rivers and the want of roads are so many barriers to communication. Thus, the Estremaduran, completely isolated, becomes regardless of his welfare, and careless about improving his condition; hence his habitual indolence, the blame of that indolence, however, ought not to be imputed to himself, but rather to the Spanish government. If the Estremadurans were excited by the hopes of wealth, or any stimulus of the same sort, they might be active, enterprising, indefatigable; for no other people are more patient of labour, none braver in war; the best horsemen in the Spanish army are natives of Estremadura.

Chieftowns of the districts.

Plasencia on the banks of the Gertes has at a distance the appearance of a fine town; the old walls in a state of tolerable preservation, six gates, five hospitals, an episcopal palace, and particularly the aqueduct composed of eighty arches are the principal ornaments. The Roman inscriptions and other ancient remains in the same place attest its antiquity, but it is doubtful whether it bore in ancient times the name of *Ambracia* or *Deobriga*. Coria, encompassed with walls, in which the architecture of the Romans may be easily discovered, was without doubt the ancient Taurium, a place mentioned by Ptolemy, although a Spanish author supposes its name to be of Arabic origin.* The situation of Coria on a hill, the church and old dungeon, which is larger than any other building, give it an imposing appearance.

Alcantara.

Alcantara, another chief town of a district, received its

* M. Minano, Diccionario Geograficio e Studistico.

present name from the Arabians; it signifies the bridge, for when these foreigners took possession of the town, they were struck with the fineness of the Roman bridge over the Tagus; that magnificent monument of Trajan's reign has resisted the effects of time and political commotions. It rises to the height of 211 feet 10 inches above the river, it is equal in breadth to 27 feet 6 inches, and in length to 568 feet. Of the six arches the two in the centre are 94 feet wide; a triumphal arch with an inscription in honour of Trajan rises in the centre, and a mausoleum constructed by the Roman architect for his cemetery stands at the extremity towards the town. The same mausoleum owes its preservation to the enormous stones of which it is built; having been changed into a small chapel consecrated to St. Julian, it is at present an object of veneration both to the towns-people and the peasantry. The town was well known in the thirteenth century as being the metropolis of the military order of Calatrava, which then assumed the title of Alcantara. The edifice belonging to these knights may still be seen, it stands on the highest part of the city. Alcantara, with the exception of its antiquities contains nothing remarkable, indeed it might be difficult to explain the causes of its importance when subject to the Romans, but it must have been a place of considerable consequence, since the inhabitants were able to build the bridge and other monuments which are now in ruins. Different opinions are entertained concerning the ancient name of Alcantara, but it was probably the *Norba Cæsera*, which Pliny calls *Narbonensis Colonia*.

Several small towns are situated on the sides or base of a mountainous range that extends from the Tagus to the Sierra de Montanches. Of these towns Caceres is the most important, the capital of a district, the ancient *Castra Cæcilia*. A statue erected to the genius of Augustus, serves still to adorn the market place. Trujilo, the chief town of another district, was the Roman city of *Turria Julia*, and the birth-place of the famous Pizarro. Merida, now an insignificant town, was formerly the most flourishing of the Roman colonies; as the epoch of its origin is unknown, the Spaniards attribute its foundation to Tubal,

Caceres.

Merida.

BOOK CXXXIX.

and affirm that it was first called *Morat*, a name, according to their own confession, derived from a Greek word, which may either signify a *mulberry tree* or a *tribe*, for it admits of a double etymology. It cannot, however, be denied that it was called *Emerita Augusta* by Augustus, when he gave it to his soldiers as a recompense for their valour. At the time of its splendour, it was nearly six leagues in circumference, the majestic remains, which it still possesses, are the best proofs of its past prosperity, they have induced many strangers to visit it. Merida rises on the banks of the Guadiana; the old bridge over the river has been attributed to Trajan; although of very different dimensions, it is not less remarkable than the one at Alcantara for its solidity and fine preservation. It consists of sixty arches, which extend to the length of two thousand eight hundred feet on a breadth of twenty-three. Another Roman bridge, in a very entire state, bears the name of *Puente d'Albaregas*. Beyond the walls are situated a theatre, a naumachia, a circus, the remains of three aqueducts, and four Roman ways. The town itself is little inferior to any in Italy in the number of its monuments, within the walls may be seen a fine triumphal arch, the ruins of several temples, columns, chapters, Roman inscriptions and other remains now used in building houses.

Badajos.

On the banks of the Guadiana, but nearer its embouchure, towards the extremity of the province, is situated the ancient *Pax Augusta* or Badajos, the capital, of which the Arabic name *Beledoix* denotes a salubrious country. Very different from Merida, it contains no monument of past magnificence; a modern bridge, however, the work of Philip the Second, may vie with the ancient in Emerita Augusta; it is formed by twenty-eight arches, equal in length to 1874 feet, and in breadth to twenty-three. The cathedral is adorned with fine paintings by Cerezo and Morales, the latter of whom was born in the town. Olivenza, a fortified burgh was ceded to Spain in 1801, but in maps published since that period, it is marked by mistake in the kingdom of Portugal. Zafra, a small town, remarkable for the beauty of its situation, rises in the val-

ley of Telares. Lastly, Llerena, the chief town in a district, appears to have been the ancient Regiana. It stands on a plain covered with olive trees, and commanded by the mountains of San Miguel and San Bernardo, continuations of the Sierra Morena. At a short distance from the town are the fruitful pastures of St. Martin, on which numerous flocks and several thousand oxen are fattened.

Andalusia.

The fruitful province of Andalusia is bounded by the kingdom of Algarva, Estremadura, New Castile, Murcia and the Mediterranean; but before describing it more minutely, it may be as well to examine the Sierra Morena, formerly the retreat of the most intrepid bandits, and the terror of travellers, until a French engineer traced the famous road from Madrid to Cadiz. A tribute of praise too may be offered to the memory of a sage and philanthropist; nay the traveller who crosses these mountains, may probably inquire by what fatality men entitled to the gratitude and reward of their country have so often suffered persecution and disgrace.

Nuevas Poblaciones.

The mountains of Sierra Morena, inhabited and cultivated during the time of the Moors, were after the expulsion of these foreigners, covered with forests, which afforded shelter to robbers and wild beasts. It was proposed under the reign of Charles the Third to bring the waste lands into cultivation and to people the most fertile districts; Don Pablo Olavide, the statesman who formed the project, was entrusted with its execution; his plans were conducted with so much zeal and intelligence, that their success surpassed his expectation. Fifty-eight villages or burghs rose on the heights which command La Mancha and Andalusia. The country was called *Nuevas Poblaciones, New Populations*, and formed a province of which Carolina or the capital was soon peopled with three thousand inhabitants. But the virtuous Olavide was hated or envied by a monk belonging to the order of the Capuchins.

Having been denounced for some indiscreet expression, which had escaped him in the heat of debate, and having languished in the prisons of the holy office, he was condemned to eight years confinement in a monastery, declared

BOOK CXXXIX.

incapable of holding any place under government, and deprived of all his possessions. Olavide escaped from his prison, and found refuge in France, he remained in that country during the most sanguinary period of the revolution, and was at last permitted to return to Spain. The disgrace of the same person, the changes in the Spanish government, and its diminished resources have retarded the advancement of these settlements.

Character.

The Andalusian character resembles that of the Spanish and Arab; with the vivacity natural to the inhabitants in the southern climates of Europe, they unite the imagination and carelessness of the people in the east. Sober and patient, they are always gay and lively although in a state of the utmost wretchedness, but necessity renders them active, industrious and even ingenious in discovering resources. They are considered a boastful people, says M. Minano,* and their Arabic pronunciation accounts for the epithets bestowed on them both by Spaniards and foreigners.

Kingdom of Jaen.

The kingdom of Jaen, the smallest of the seven provinces in Andalusia, is divided into five districts, the chief towns of which shall be shortly mentioned. Ubeda, an Arabic town between the Guadalquivir and the Guadalimar, stands on a declivity surrounded by mountains and mountain passes; it has its woollen manufactories, and carries on a considerable trade in horses, which are much valued throughout Spain. Baeza, the ancient *Beatia* rises on a height; the adjacent country is said to be very healthy. The bishop's palace and the church of St. Mary d'Alcasar, are not the only edifices which adorn the town; the streets are broad and straight; but it may be regretted that they are so much deserted,—more inhabitants are certainly wanting. Andujar, a well-built town, and important from the industry of the inhabitants, is built on the right bank of the Guadalquivir, on which a bridge of fifteen arches has been erected. There are not fewer than three manufactories of painted porcelain, thirty of earthenware, and

* Diccionario geografico estadistico de Espana y Portugal. Article Andalusia.

five soap works; it exports every year four hundred wagons of porcelain and earthen-ware, the latter consisting principally of *alcarrazas*, which are used in cooling water by promoting evaporation. Some authors suppose that Jaen, the capital was the ancient *Flavium aurgitanum;* a magnificent cathedral built in the form of a Latin cross, and on the site of an ancient mosque, twelve parishes, fourteen convents and several hospitals render it when seen at a distance, like a town of forty thousand inhabitants, although the population amounts hardly to half the number. Martos, supposed to be *Tucci colonia*, is commanded by a very high rock, from which Ferdinand the Fourth precipitated two brothers of the name of Carvagal, who were suspected without any foundation to have murdered a knight of the family of Benavides. The two brothers protested their innocence in vain, and, according to a rural tradition, while they rolled from stone to stone, a voice was heard citing Ferdinand to appear on a certain day before the judgment-seat of God; on the day mentioned Ferdinand died at Jaen.

Lucena. Lucena, a considerable town in the kingdom of Cordova, and the capital of a district, carries on a trade in wine. Montilla, also the chief town in a district, is a place of greater industry, although less populous than Lucena. Four porcelain works, several linen manufactories, fifty oil mills and many other works tend to enrich its laborious inhabitants.

Bujalance, which many consider the Roman city of *Calpurnium*, is situated in a large and fruitful plain that lies to the west of the road between Andujar and Cordova. The trade of the place consists in cloth and woollen stuffs.

Cordova. At the distance of some leagues from Cordova, near the Venta of Alcolea, one of the finest bridges in Europe has been erected on the road that leads from Andujar, over the Guadalquivir. The entrance into the celebrated Cordova, the Roman *Corduba*, is not calculated to give the stranger a favourable opinion of the town. A mass of houses built without any regularity or elegance form many narrow, crooked and dirty streets. The space which the town occu-

BOOK CXXXIX.

pies, although very great, consists for the most part of gardens; it is enclosed by old walls, flanked with solid towers of Roman or Moorish construction. One monument, the only relic of Moorish power, attracts notice; it is the magnificent mosque built by Abderam in the year 770, long a principal temple of Islamism, second only to the one at Mecca; at present the sacred images of catholicism rise round the verses of the Coran. The edifice forms a rectangle of 440 feet in breadth by 620 in length, including an extent of 210 feet, which is laid out as a garden, and enclosed with walls and arcades. A great many pillars arranged in the form of a quincunx are crowded in the interior of the building; indeed it is affirmed that there are not fewer than 850 of different sorts, such as marble, granite and porphyry. These columns rest on very low pedestals, they are adorned with elegant chapters, and support a double range of arcades. Not far from the mosque or *mezquita*, as the Spaniards still call it, is a fine bridge of sixteen arches built on the Guadalquivir by the Romans and the Moors. In the neighbourhood of the town are seen the ruins of a building which the people call the house of Seneca; it cannot perhaps be determined whether the tradition be well or ill founded, but it is certain that Cordova was the birth-place of both the Senecas, of Lucain, Avicenna, Averroes and Gonzalvo Fernandez, better known by the name of Gonzalvo de Cordova. In the time of the Moors, the population amounted to 300,000 inhabitants; in the seventeenth century it was reduced to 60,000; at present it does not contain more than 46,000. While the Romans and the Moors were masters of Spain, Cordova was a place of great trade and industry; the inhabitants are still employed in dressing morocco leather, an art which they learnt from the Saracens; the other manufactures are ribbons, gold lace and hats.

Province of Seville.

The two provinces that have been last mentioned are not together more important than the province of Seville. Ecija, the Roman *Stigis*, one of the largest towns in Seville, stands between two high hills on the banks of the Genil, over which a stone bridge is erected; the heat during the greater part of the year is so excessive that the Spaniards call the town the *Sarten de Andalucia, or frying*

pan of Andalusia. Carmona, an opulent and well built city, is mentioned by ancient writers, and it still retains an ancient name; two of the gates that communicate with the town were built by the Romans. It possesses at present a considerable trade, consisting of cloth, soap, linen, porcelain and morocco leather.

Seville, a town founded by the Phenicians, consequently one of the oldest in Spain, was also the most celebrated both in ancient times and during the middle ages. It is still a place of great importance both from its size, the number and magnificence of the public buildings, and the wealth and industry of the inhabitants. It was called *Hispalis* by the Phenicians on account of the fruitful country in the vicinity.. Julius Cesar gave it the name of *Julia Romula* in vain, for the Arabs by changing it into *Sevilla*, indicated the fruitfulness of its situation, and rendered it analogous in meaning to the one of Phenician origin. Seville is admirably situated; the horizon is bounded by mountains, of which the nearest depend on the Sierra Nia de Ronda, and terminate towards the west in the long chain which forms the Sierra Nevada. It rises in the midst of a plain covered with olive plantations, hamlets, villages and convents; the Guadalquivir, which fertilizes the same plain, winds at the base of the walls. The latter, flanked with 166 towers, form a circumference of two leagues, exclusively of the suburbs; if these be taken into account, the extent may be nearly doubled. The population of Seville was probably exaggerated at the time that Saint Ferdinand took it from the Moors; in this way the Spanish writers were perhaps desirous to magnify the glory of the conquest. It is certain, however, that since the same period the population has considerably diminished. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, it contained 130,000 inhabitants, while the cloth and silk manufactories furnished employment to 16,000 workmen; at the end of the same century the population was reduced to 100,000, and not more than a thousand workmen were employed in its manufactories; the number of inhabitants at present does not exceed 91,000. Seville.

The Spaniards, accustomed to extol the beauty of their

country, express their admiration of Castile in the following popular couplet:

Que non a visto Sevilla
Non a visto maravilla.

But Seville, with all its wonders, is a very gloomy and dirty town; the streets are so narrow that it is not safe or easy to pass through them in a carriage, yet the marks of wheels may be seen in most of them; in others, a person with his arms extended might touch the opposite houses. There are in the town and suburbs 564 streets, 12055 houses, 62 squares and 32 churches. Of the fifteen gates some are of good architecture, and the one that leads to the Triana, the largest of the suburbs, forms a triumphal arch adorned with Doric columns.* The public buildings in Seville are the greatest ornaments; those worthy of notice are the archbishop's palace, a large and richly decorated edifice; the alcazar or palace of the Moorish kings, a work completed by Peter the Cruel and his successors, remarkable both for the elegance and singularity of its form, and the fine gardens that surround it. The others are the town-house, the cannon foundry, the college of St. Elme, and the Lonja or treasury, a square building of Tuscan architecture, where the archives relative to the discoveries made by Spanish navigators are preserved. But the cathedral church, more imposing than any other edifice, and perhaps the largest in Spain, was built in the beginning of the fifteenth century. It is 400 feet in length, 300 in breadth, and 150 in height; the interior is divided into nine naves, adorned with statues, paintings and tombs. There rest the ashes of St. Ferdinand, styled in France the Spanish St. Lewis, of Alphonso, a king and an astronomer, and lastly of Christopher Columbus, on whose tomb is engraved the following simple epitaph:

A Castilla y Arragon
Otro mondo dio Colomb.†

* The following verses are inscribed on the gate of Carne:
Condidit Alcides, renovavit Ulius urbem
Restituit Christo, Fernandes tertius heros.

† Columbus gave another world to Castile and Arragon.

The most curious part of the cathedral is the celebrated tower of the Giralda, the work of Geber, an Arabian architect, who raised it to the height of 250 feet, but in the year 1668, the height was increased by a hundred feet. From this square tower the view extends to the distance of more than fifteen leagues. No stair leads to the summit, but an inclined plane which is said to be of so gentle an acclivity that a horse might ascend it at full gallop,—it is very doubtful that the experiment has ever been tried. The cupola is surmounted by a gilt bronze figure representing Faith, and serving the purpose of a weathercock;* although weighing more than thirty four quintals, it is turned by the gentlest breeze.

The Giralda

The amphitheatre of Italica has been considered the finest ancient monument in the neigbourhood of Seville, it was formerly the principal ornament of *Santi Ponce*, now an insignificant village, but once a flourishing city, the chief town in a diocess, and the birth-place of three emperors, Trajan, Hadrian and Theodosius.

Ruins of Italica.

The remaining towns in the province may be shortly described. Utrera was probably the ancient *Orippo*; it is small but well built; the walls have been destroyed; the adjacent country is fruitful in olives, vines and pasturage, on which excellent horses are reared. Maguer possesses an ecclesiastical tribunal, an hospital, two convents, two Latin schools, and a harbour on the Tinto, from which wines and the other products of the province are exported; but the principal trade consists in spirits; there are not fewer than sixty brandy distilleries in the town. Huelva, the chief town of a district, at the confluence of the Odiel and the Tinto, stands on the site of *Onuba*; the harbour may be perhaps as much frequented as the one at Maguer. Lastly, Ayamonte, a fortified town at the mouth of the Guadiana, on the confines of Andalusia and Portugal, has been enriched by commerce and sardel fisheries.

A recent subdivision of Castile forms at present the province of Cadiz. San Luca de Barramada, the nearest

The province of Cadiz.

* Descripcion astistera de la Catedral de Sevilla, by Don Juan Augustin Cean Bermudes.

BOOK CXXXIX.

place in the province to Ayamonte, lies at the mouth of the Guadiana; as it was formerly called Lucifer, it has been supposed that the god of light was worshipped in the town, it carries on a trade in wines, in the produce of the adjoining districts, and in different sorts of liqueurs. The neighbouring country is very fruitful, but on the opposite bank of the river, sandy plains as sterile as the deserts of Africa extend to a considerable distance.

Xeres.

Rota, a place celebrated for its wines, rises on the coast. Xeres or Jeres de la Frontera, the ancient *Asta Regia*, stands at the foot of a hill in a very fruitful part of the country. The produce of the vineyards amounts annually to 7758 tuns, they are deposited in cellars which from their extent and solidity may be mentioned among the curiosities of the town. An old wall in which arcades and passages have been cut, divides Xeres into two parts. On one side of the wall, the streets are narrow, and the houses are ill built; on the other, the streets are broad and regular, composed chiefly of neat and well built houses. The royal castle, remarkable for its large towers, appears to be a very ancient building.

Arcos de la Frontera, a small town with long streets, ill adapted for foot passengers, because they are wholly unpaved, rises at the distance of four leagues from Xeres on the steep banks of the Guadalete. It is situated in the same district as the last town; antiquaries consider it the ancient *Arcobriga*.

Cadiz.

It is necessary to cross the Guadalete to visit Cadiz, that important city, whose inhabitants are said to be the most civilized in Spain, but who imprudently and without any chance of success erected twice the standard of independence in the course of fifteen years. *Gaddir*, which signifies a fortified place, was the ancient name of Cadiz; the same name was afterwards changed into Gades by the Greeks and Romans. Strabo attributes the foundation of Gades to the Phenicians; he compares it with the most powerful towns in Italy, although the inhabitants, says the geographer, possess only a small island and little land on the continent, they arm the largest and the greatest number of vessels that are employed in the commerce of the Mediterranean and the

ocean.* Cadiz, from the advantages of its position, may still be ranked among the most commercial towns in Europe. That part of the Spanish coast has undergone many changes since the time of Strabo; it is probable, however, that the natural mole which unites Cadiz with the island of Leon did not exist in his time, or that Gades was situated in an island, which has since become a Peninsula. This opinion appears to be confirmed by Pliny, who says that the town is situated in an island near the island of Juno, which can be no other than that of Leon.

Fortifications.

Cadiz is at present the chief town in one of the three maritime departments in Spain. Defended on all sides by ramparts and bastions, nature as well as art have contributed to its safety. It is guarded by sand banks and rocks towards the north and the west, and on these rocks are the two forts of St. Catherine and St. Sebastian. To add to its security, the Cortadura or canal has been cut across the headland that unites it to Leon; by this means every communication with the island may be easily intercepted. The blockade made by the French lasted from the year 1809 to 1812, but the only inconvenience which the inhabitants sustained, was that of bringing water at a considerable expense from the port of St. Mary, for there are no wells or springs in the town. The houses are well built and whitened with great care; their projecting roofs may darken the streets, but they serve as a shade against the rays of the sun. The town as a whole may bear a comparison with any other in Spain, but the edifices are by no means remarkable; the cathedral is small and shabby, the townhouse is an irregular edifice of very ordinary architecture, the prison is without doubt the finest building in Cadiz. The good order that prevails in the interior of the prison, and the discipline to which the prisoners are subjected, are creditable to the public functionaries. If it be considered that besides the foundling hospital there are five others, one of which contains 800 persons, who are cleanly and well kept, it may be allowed that the inhabitants are neither deficient in charity, nor injudicious in the

Buildings.

* Book III. chap. 5. § 4.

BOOK CXXXIX.

method of administering it. The people of Cadiz are said to be better informed than the other Spaniards; at all events, if they are not so, it is not for want of schools; it contains, besides many others, a seminary and college, of which the professors and teachers are jesuits; an academy of fine arts, a naval seminary, schools of mathematics, surgery and medicine.

The island of Leon is separated from the continent by a branch of the sea 600 feet in breadth, which the Spaniards call the *Rio Santi-Petri;* a bridge erected over it communicates with the road that leads to *Medina Sidonia,* a small town on the summit of a conical rock, famous for its medicinal waters and a particular sort of clay, so well adapted for making bricks and earthen ware, that these articles are exported into most parts of Andalusia. The name of the town is of Arabic origin, but the number of Roman inscriptions renders it probable that it was the ancient *Asindo.* The town and harbour of Tarifa are situated towards the coast at five leagues from lake Janda in the southern extremity of Spain. It was the Roman *Mellaria,* a place of some repute for its salt springs in the time of Strabo. As a fortified place, it may be of considerable importance; but the inhabitants attempted without success to unite it to the small island of the same name, and from which it is only separated by the distance of three or four hundred feet.

Medina Sidonia.

Province of Grenada.

The road that leads to the province of Grenada, the most important province in Andalusia, is at one part not more than two leagues removed from Gibraltar, an almost impregnable rock that has belonged to the English since the war of the succession; an account of it shall be given in the description of the English possessions.

In the rich country where the towns rival each other in industry, one may ascend from the low and burning plains on the Mediterranean to the cold regions of Nevada, to the principal chain which extends along the province. Cool springs temper the heat of the climate, the meadows are enamelled with flowers; the same province is intersected with delightful vallies, and better watered than any other in the Peninsula; it has been so much favoured by nature, that it was the last which the persecuted Moors determined

Ronda.

to abandon. Grenada contains besides several important towns; Ronda or the first on the road towards Madrid, is divided into two parts by a frightful precipice, which reaches from the summit to the base of the height on which it is built. The chasm may be about five or six hundred feet in depth, and a torrent flows below it. The torrent was called the *Gaudalvin* by the Arabs, a compound word which signifies literally a hollow stream, but the Spaniards changed the name into Guadiara; it falls into the sea between Estepona and Gibraltar. Two bridges lead to both quarters of the town; the largest or the new bridge is so much elevated above the torrent that the passengers can hardly hear the noise of the waters. A stair consisting of 400 steps leads to the cascade of El Tajo. Ronda, as its name indicates, stands on the site of *Arunda*, a place mentioned by Pliny and Ptolemy. The ruins of the ancient *Acinipo*, the present *Ronda la Vieja* or old Ronda, are not more than two leagues distant. The remains of a theatre may be still seen; several inscriptions, medals and statues have of late years been discovered. Estepona, a maritime town, is situated at the base of the Sierra Merveja or vermillion mountains, well known for their mines of plumbago. Marbella, the chief town in a district abounding with minerals, might become an important place, if the roads were kept in such a state as to afford better means of communication; it exports different manufactures, and many vessels frequent the port on account of the fisheries in the neighbourhood. The streets are straight; it is adorned with several fountains and a fine public walk, from which the view extends along the Mediterranean. According to a tradition, the same view was so much admired by Ferdinand and Isabella, that the queen, struck with the beauty of the sea, exclaimed, *Que mar tan bella!* which exclamation, say the chroniclers, accounts for the name of Marbella. Whatever the origin of its present name may have been, it cannot be doubted that the place is very ancient; it has been supposed that it was called *Barbesola*, but it may be considered more probable that it stands on the site of *Cilniana*, a town mentioned in the itinerary of Antonine.

BOOK CXXXIX.

Province of Malaga.

It is only in the latter part of the year that rains are common in the fine climate of Malaga; in other seasons, the sky is almost always serene and cloudless. The base and sides of the mountain that enclose the bay on which Malaga stands, are covered with olive, orange trees, and fruitful vineyards, or varied with cotton fields and plantations of sugar cane. Thus the town enjoys the advantages of a fine climate and a convenient harbour. The men are affable and polite, the women are considered the fairest of any in Andalusia. Malaga is encompassed with a double wall, defended by bastions and a castle built by the Moors, on the summit of the rock which commands the town. Two extensive moles shelter the harbour against every storm; on one of them revolving lights have lately been erected. The inhabitants are supplied with water from a fine aqueduct, a work which Molina, a wealthy citizen, built at his own expense. Many Moorish houses have been replaced by modern buildings; the episcopal palace, a very large edifice, is built in the best style of architecture; the cathedral has been equally admired, its tower reaches to the height of 200 feet. The present town rises near the site of the ancient *Malaca*, a place of great trade, which Strabo affirms was founded by the Phenicians.

Vineyards

The rich vineyards of Malaga produce annually about 13,340 tuns of wine. There are not fewer than thirty different sorts of grapes; they are classed according to the seasons in which they ripen. The early grapes are collected in June, they yield a thick and sweet wine which is prized by many; they are valuable, too, in as much as they furnish the best raisins, a very lucrative branch of the Malaga trade; but for that purpose they must be cut at the middle of the stalk, and allowed to dry fifteen days in the sun, they are afterwards packed. The ordinary grapes are gathered in September, and their produce form the strong and dry wines, which are exported into different countries. But the late grapes produce the best wines; one sort or the *guindas* wine brings the highest price; it has been so called from the buds of a particular cherry tree, which are put into the vats. The products of Malaga are exported by the nations that consume them; out of all the ships which

enter the harbour, certainly not more than a seventh part are Spanish vessels.

A road that winds along the coast, leads from Malaga to *Velez Malaga*, which although insignificant in point of population, is a place of considerable industry and trade; it stands on the side of *Menoba*, and the vineyards in the neighbourhood are almost as much famed as those of Malaga.

Lovers' Mountain.

Antequera or the ancient *Antecaria*, situated between the heights of the same name and the Guadiaro, contains a greater number of inhabitants than the last town. The Lovers' Mountain (*Pena de los Enamorados*) rises in the vicinity; it has been celebrated by an act of heroism not unexampled in the history of Spain during the middle ages, or even in modern times. A Christian knight had been taken prisoner by a Moorish prince; during his captivity he fell in love with the daughter of the infidel; resolved to celebrate their union in a Christian country, and at the foot of the altar, they had proceeded to the frontiers, when they were overtaken by the prince and his troops; they sought a hiding place in the caves of the mountain, but the enraged father ordered the soldiers to seize the fugitives. His daughter remonstrated that she was a Christian, that she had married, and threatened to destroy herself if he approached; but the father was inexorable, and the two lovers rushed headlong from the summit of a precipice. A cross indicates the place, and serves still to commemorate the event.

The province of Grenada is divided into two nearly equal parts, the northern and the southern. The towns in the southern are either ports, or situated at a short distance from the sea. Almunacar, of which the harbour is sheltered from the east and west winds, stands at the foot of a hill, where are seen the remains of a citadel, that was used as a treasury by the Moorish kings, and also as a prison for their ambitious relatives. The country round Motril is fruitful in sugar cane, and according to the Spaniards, the rum extracted from it, is not inferior to any from the West Indies; the town may be about two leagues from the shore, it stands on a road that leads in one direction to Malaga,

BOOK CXXXIX.

in the other to Almeria, a city that has been for ages wealthy and industrious, occupying the site of *Margis*, a town of which the origin is lost in the night of time; the harbour which the ancients called *Magnus Portus* is still well frequented.

Alhama.

Loja situated at the base of a chain that bears its name, is noted for its salt springs. Alhama, of which the Arabic name signifies a *thermal spring*, stands higher above the level of the sea than any other town in Europe. The Moorish houses, the old walls that encompass it, and other peculiarities render it difficult of description. The country above it is covered with snow during six months, and scorched by the sun the rest of the year. The baths at a quarter of a league from the walls, are much frequented. The waters are thick, sulphureous and slightly coloured; the place from which the spring issues is arid and desert. When the rays of the sun fall on the water in the baths, it exhibits a singular appearance, in as much as it seems to be covered with an unctuous film; in cold weather vapours rise from it, and the pipes through which it flows are lined with a white and soft substance. The road to Veles Malaga extends along the mountains of Alhama, and the traveller observes a curious passage, the Puerta de Zaflaraya, a natural gate in the midst of high rocks; no sooner has he passed it, than very different scenery appears before him; the eye wanders over an immense extent of country, the southern declivities of the Betic range, the coasts of Grenada, the Mediterranean and the African shores.

But the same road leads to an important town, a place fatal to the Moorish power in Spain. On the left bank of the Genil, and in a pleasant country, is situated the city of Santa Fe, which was almost destroyed by an earthquake in 1807. It was founded by the Castillian heroine, the wife of Ferdinand the catholic. During the siege of Grenada, the queen made a vow not to change her shift until the capital had opened its gates. To intimidate the enemy her camp was changed into a fortified town, and the town was called Santa Fe. The Moors fought long and valiantly, but it appeared at last that resistance was vain. It had been observed that the queen's shift had been so long worn that it assumed

a yellow hue, hence the origin of what the Spaniards call to this day an *Isabella colour*. It was also within the walls of Santa Fe that Ferdinand and Isabella aproved of the first expedition undertaken by Christopher Columbus.

Grenada.

The walks on the banks of the Genil indicate the approach of Grenada,* through which the Daro flows; it is encompassed by woods, and watered by limpid streams, while the gardens and groves in the neighbouring heights diffuse fragance to a distance. The Sierra Morena may be about half a mile from the town, the summits are covered with eternal snow, but the cold of winter is never felt at the base. Grenada was founded by the Moors, the present state of the town may be contrasted with what it was in the time of its splendour. When the crescent floated on the mosques, it contained 400,000 inhabitants; it occupied a circumference of three leagues, which was defended by more than a thousand towers. It is still adorned with several fine buildings, there are two large squares, sixteen of a smaller size, many public fountains, seven colleges, eleven hospitals, an elegant theatre built by the French, and sixty-three churches, the most remarkable are the churches of San-Geromino, Santa-Cruz, San-Juan de Dios, and the cathedral in which are contained the tombs of Ferdinand and Isabella, of Philip the First, and Queen Joan. But these edifices appear insignificant near others for which the people of Grenada are indebted to the genius and luxury of the Arabs. Charles the Fifth, during the splendour of his power, erected in vain a palace which was to surpass in magnificence whatever had been constructed by the Moors; for in beholding this palace which was planned and executed while the arts were regenerating in Europe, one does not regret that it remains in an unfinished state, but that a part of the Alhambra was destroyed in order to obtain a convenient site. This edifice of Charles the Fifth, although a large, although adorned with porticos and the most costly marble, is infinitely inferior to the Moorish palace and fortress, in which the apparent fresh-

* The Spaniards call it Granada.

BOOK CXXXIX.

ness of the ornaments, the galleries supported by light columns, the elegance of the courts, the arcades that surround them, indicate its superiority over the modern buildings in Grenada.

The same town was the birthplace of the poet Hurtado de Mendoza, and of the jesuit Suarez, who has obtained a sad celebrity in the provincial letters of Pascal. At a short distance from the walls may be seen the site of *Eliberis*, a Roman town, where valuable antiquities have been discovered.

Guadix.

Guadix, situated in a valley on the banks of the Rio Guadix, is the metropolis of a district; it was within its old walls that the Moors made a long and obstinate resistance after the conquest of the capital. It stands probably near the site of *Acci*, a Betic city, that it does so might be inferred from the ancient name without any other proof, for by prefixing the word *gua*, which signifies *running water*, the Arabs changed it into *Guadiacci*, and the Spaniards corrupted it into Guadix. The country round Baza abounds in hemp and lint, the town rises in a fruitful valley at the base of a mountain which bears its name; it was the ancient town of *Basti*, the capital of the *Bastitani*. Lastly, Huescar situated in the same district as Baza, and on the banks of the Barbato, carries on a trade in woollen stuffs; the village of Huescar la Vieja near its walls is all that remains of *Osca*, a place founded by the Carthaginians.

Province of Murcia.

Another province on the continent remains to be described, that of Murcia, formerly entitled a kingdom, and contiguous to Andalusia, New Castile and the province of Valencia. It does not extend beyond the basin of the Segura, it is divided into nine districts.

Lorca, one of the most important towns in the province, is the ancient *Eliocroca;* its situation on the northern declivity of the Sierra del Cano, rendered the calamity that befel it in 1802, more disastrous. A reservoir in which the streams of the neighbouring torrents are collected, and which serves to supply the country people with water for the irrigation of their lands, burst suddenly, inundated all the lower part of the town, and destroyed more than six hundred persons together with a great number of

cattle. The loss sustained by the inundation in the country and in the town was calculated at 50,000,000 reals. Murcia, a wealthy and populous city, is situated in a plain watered by the Segura, the streams of which are confined by an embankment. The cathedral may be the finest edifice, but both the outside and the interior are loaded with ornaments; the others are the townhouse and the royal silk manufactory; the raw material with which the last is supplied, forms the principal wealth of the district. It appears from Roman inscriptions and other antiquities that Murcia was formerly called *Vergilia*. But Carthagena, the most important town in the province, both from its commerce and its port, which may contain forty ships of the line, and a great many small vessels, was founded by Asdrubal the Carthaginian. The territory in which it is situated, separated from that of Murcia by lofty heights, contained so many mines that it was long to the Romans what Mexico was afterwards to the Spaniards. They worked silver and different useful metals. A very large cavern, about three miles distant from the town, now called the cave of St. John, is nothing else than an ancient mine. The thermal springs in the neighbouring mountains are still frequented, and many labourers are employed in working alum. Carthagena, perhaps the finest city in Spain, is defended by several forts along the coast, and also by the fort Atalaya on an eminence which commands the walls. The naval arsenal is very large, the yards, docks and rectangular basin occupy nearly the western half of the town. The cathedral or the most remarkable edifice is formed by three naves, and within them are contained several richly sculptured altars. The depth and size of the harbour in this chief town of a maritime department are not the only advantages which it furnishes to the Spanish navy.

Baleares.

Ivica or Ibiza, one of the Baleares, at no great distance from Carthagena, is still nearer the harbour of Denia: Iviza, the capital, stands on the declivity of a steep rock, which rises near a bay; on the summit of the same rock are the bishop's palace, the cathedral and the governor's castle. The town is encompassed with walls, which although they are no security against the attacks of pirates,

BOOK CXXXIX.

defend it at least against the natives of the island; for the latter are so much oppressed by taxes, that finding it impossible to pay them, they are apt to revolt. The country round the town is marshy but fruitful in cotton; the rest of the island abounds in a sort of pitch obtained from the Aleppo pine (*Pinus Alepensis*), and which along with the produce of the salt works forms the principal branches of commerce.

Manners.

Ivica contains besides some scattered habitations that have been dignified with the name of villages. If the inhabitants are rude and uncultivated, it should be considered that they have been long degraded by superstition and poverty. Their songs consist of one or two modulations; the monotonous sounds of the flagelet, accompanied with the tambourin and the castanet make up all the music that they use in their wild and ungraceful dances.

Costume.

The costume of the peasants consists of a short coat and tight pantaloons that reach to the middle of the leg; they were a red woollen cap; their *spardilles* or shoes resemble in form the wooden shoes worn by the French, they are made of matweed, and attached by cords of the same substance. The dress of the women is more elegant, they were a large round hat a little inclined on one side, a handkerchief that covers the neck and descends to the waist, but open behind in order to display their long hair; three necklaces of different sizes are placed above the handkerchief, to two of them crosses are attached; a narrow but richly embroidered apron contrasts well with a dark petticoat; the spardilles are of the same shape as those worn by the men.

Marriages.

The singular manner by which marriages were celebrated in the Balearic islands in the days of Diodorus Siculus, has been mentioned in the account of the ancient inhabitants. The present custom, which appears to have originated from the ancient, although less immoral, is not less ridiculous. As soon as a villager obtains the consent of his future bride he is considered by her parents as one of the family; but the ceremony does not take place until the end of a year at least; within that period, the young lads in the neighbourhood are permitted to visit the bride on

certain days and to remain alone with her; according to a French traveller, they emulate each other in dissuading her from her purpose by enumerating the vices and bad qualities of her intended husband; the bride is constrained to hear them without a murmur, and as the lover must leave the room when they enter, he suffers during his absence the same vexation which, in all probability, he has before inflicted on others.*

Fromentera.

Fromentera or, as the Spaniards call it, Formentera, is so near the Ivica, that it might be easy and without doubt useful to unite them. The inhabitants are scattered in several villages; the island has been represented as infested with serpents, wolves and foxes, but the only animals in the woods or meadows are sheep and goats, which from neglect have become wild; the flamingo and other birds of passage abound on the shores.

Cabrera.

Cabrera, at a short distance from Majorca is inhabited by some shepherds, whose wealth consists in their goats. It is well wooded, and three springs serve to supply the inhabitants with wholesome water. The sufferings which the French prisoners experienced on the island about the end of the last war, must ever be remembered with regret by the friends of humanity; they were allowed to perish for want of food, and their bones scattered on the island, attest the cruelty of those to whose care they were entrusted.†

Majorca.

The island of Majorca contains sixteen towns, and the average population of each may amount to 4500 inhabitants; but Palma or the capital, peopled by 34,000, is the only one worthy of being described. It is encompassed with walls about seven or eight feet thick, with thirteen bastions fifty paces in breadth, and commanded by a castle on the hill of Belver. The houses are built of stone, but the excessive breadth of the balconies darkens and confines the streets. The Lonja that rises above the port, is the only edifice which recalls the former splendour of the town.

* M. J. Cambassede Excursions dans les des Baleares.

† For the details of these proceedings, disgraceful to a civilized nation, the reader may consult the works of Cambassede.

BOOK CXXXIX.

The tomb of Jayme II. serves to adorn the cathedral; he was king of Majorça, his father conquered the Moors, and took possession of the island in the year 1229. The town, long the principal mart for the commerce between Europe and the east, carries on at present no more trade than what is necessary to supply the wants of the islanders. The Jews are despised by the other inhabitants; many of them are employed in manufacturing jewellery and trinkets.

Dress.

The *Pages* or rural inhabitants of Majorca wear a very different dress from the people in Ivica; a round jacket without a collar, sandals, bare legs and loose breeches render their costume not unlike that of the Greek peasants, but they may be distinguished by a broad hat, which serves to shade the visage. The women wear sandals; in other respects their dress differs little from that worn in Ivica. The people may be perhaps more superstitious than those in Spain, but they are also more hospitable; as there are no inns in the island, they never refuse to admit strangers, and to share with them whatever they possess.

Minorca.

The people in Minorca resemble those of Majorca in their manners and in their dress, but they are said to be the least superstitious of the Spaniards. Five towns are situated on the island. *Jamna*, now Civdadela was probably founded by the Carthaginians; with the exception of Mahon or the capital, it is the largest in Minorca. Broad and straight streets, clean and well built houses render Mahon an agreeable residence; the cathedral and townhouse correspond ill with the rest of the city. The boldness of their pirates and the safe retreat afforded by their harbour, enabled the inhabitants to amass considerable wealth during the war against Napoleon. The harbour indeed is one of the finest in the Mediterranean; the celebrated Andrew Doria is said to have been the author of a Spanish proverb, according to which, the only four good ports in that sea, are June, July, August and Portmahon.* It may be about a league in length, and a thousand or twelve hundred yards in breadth; the sides are formed by two steep heights.

* Junio, Julio Agosto y puerte Mahon.
Los Mejores puertos del Mediterranco son.

The breadth of the entrance is about 300 yards, and vessels can sail in the neighbourhood, without being endangered by rocks.

Commerce and industry.

Having endeavoured to describe the principal towns and islands in Spain, it remains for us to make one or two remarks on the commerce and industry of that fine country. It has been already seen that it abounds in soda, salt, iron and different metals, that it produces oil, fruits and wine, the best wool in the world, and silk that is only surpassed by that of Italy. The value of the wines, which the Spaniards consider the most lucrative of their productions, might be considerably increased, if any thing like an equable system of duties were introduced. It exports at present about twenty-five or thirty thousand casks, and the price obtained for them does not exceed L.625,000. The silk in the province of Arragon, Valencia, Grenada and Murcia, might soon rival any in Italy, if exportation were encouraged, and the mulberry cultivated with care. The mines, although rich in different metals, do not afford all the advantages that might be expected from them. Lastly, could it be believed that the Spaniards, with so great an extent of coast, depended on foreigners for all the dry or salt fish which they consume. A Spanish author calculates that the money given every year for imports, exceeds L.500,000, thus the consumption in the interior nearly counterbalance all the profits it derives from the fecundity of the soil.

Foreign trade.

The insignificance of their foreign trade ought not to be attributed to the indifference of the Spaniards. Although from their situation, few nations have such facilities in forming a mercantile navy, the Spanish flag is the one which mariners observe very rarely on the sea. The Spaniards hold some intercourse with different ports in the Mediterranean, but with few on the Baltic; if they crossed the Atlantic, it was only on account of their American possessions.

The taxes with which the products of agriculture and industry are loaded, the diversity of weights, measures and money; the bad state of the roads, the scarcity of canals, for the most useful remain unfinished, may be considered

BOOK CXXXIX.

the principal causes which have led to the decay of Spanish commerce. But all those evils might be easily remedied, and the country contains within itself the elements of prosperity. The time may come when government, aware of the true interests of Spain, will pursue an opposite course to that which has been hitherto followed. If industry were encouraged, if salutary reforms were introduced, if the real advantages of the country were no longer sacrificed to the imaginary advantages of American possessions, Spain might become the wealthiest and most flourishing region in Europe.

Republic of Andorra.

It may be necessary to mention a small territory near the confines of France and Spain, nominally neutral and protected by two great states. Although the republic of Andorra is twice as large as that of San Marino in Italy, the former remains unnoticed, while the other is described in most geographical works.* It is bounded on the east, the south and the west by the corregidories of Puycerda and Talarn in Catalonia, and on the north by the department of the Arriege. The whole state may be about seven leagues in length by six in breadth; it contains thirty-four villages or hamlets and six burghs; namely, Old Andorra or the capital, Camillo, Encampo, Massana, Ordino and Saint Julian. The thermal springs near the hamlet of Caldes are still frequented, and the iron in the territory furnishes employment to many of the inhabitants. The valley, watered by several streams, of which the three largest are the Balira, the Ordino and the Os, is crowned by inaccessible mountains. Rich in the products of the three natural kingdoms, it contains quarries of fine marble, inexhaustible iron mines and valuable timber, which is transported by the Balira and the Segra to Tortosa, and from thence to the Mediterranean. The forests and the mountains abound with game and different animals, such as wild goats and wild boars, bears and wolves. Part of the land produces excellent tobacco.

Origin.

Lewis the Debonnaire ceded the sovereignty of Andorra

* It holds a place, however, in the excellent table, entitled Balance politique du Globe by Ad. Balbi.

to the bishops of Urgel; the latter possessed it jointly with the counts of Foix from the thirteenth century until the accession of Henry the Fourth to the throne, when the county of Foix was united to France. Since that time the French kings retained feudal rights over it: but in the year 1790, feudal rights were abolished, and the small republic of Andorra was rendered independent of France.

Government.

The government is composed of two syndics, elected by a general council of twenty-four members, who are chosen by the six burghs. The people speak the Catalonian dialect, they are under the spiritual authority of the bishop of Urgel. Happy in their seclusion, the quarrels of ambitious men never disturb their peaceful labours.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

POLITICAL DIVISION OF SPAIN.

Lieutenancies.	Corregiementos.*	Governments.	Alcadias Mayoras.†
Pampeluna		Pampeluna	
Vittoria	Guipuscoa	St. Sebastian	
	Bilboa		
Oviedo	Orense	Corunna	Corunna.
	Betansos	Ferrol	Ferrol.
	Banos de Molyas		
	Baltar		
	Linares		
	Verin		
Santiago	Cambados	Salvatierra	Salvatierra.
	Ulloa		
	Rairiz da Vega		
Soto Mayor			Soto Mayor.
Barcelona	Barcelona	Barcelona	Barcelona.
	Albarracin	Berga	Berga.
	Cervera	Cervera	
	Barbastro		
	Benavarre		
	Borja		
	Gerone	Gerone	Gerone.
	Calatayud	Calatayud	Calatayud.
	Figueras	Figueras	Figueras.
	Moya		
	Lerida	Lerida	Lerida.
	Manresa	Manresa	Manresa.
	Mataro	Mataro	Mataro.
	Puigcerda	Puigcerda	Puigcerda.
	Talarn	Talarn	
	Tortosa	Sco de Urgel	
	Valle do Aren	Rosas	
	Vich		
	Villa franca de Penades		

* Corregiemento, the district in which the jurisdiction of a corregidor extends.

† The district subject to a higher alcade.

Lieutenancies.	Corregiementos.	Governments.	Alcadias Mayoras.
Zaragossa	Zaragossa		Zaragossa.
	Cincavillas	Cincavillas	Cincavillas.
	Daroca	Daroca	Daroca.
		Alcaniz, O. M.*	
	Fraga		
	Huesca	Huesca	Huesca.
	Jaca	Jaca	Jaca.
	Tarazona	Monzon	
	Torrijas		
	Tarragona	Tarragona	Tarragona.
	Teruel	Teruel	Teruel.
Leon	Leon		Leon.
	Astorga		
	Ponferrada		
	Benavides		
	Bonar		
	Sahagum		
Palencia	Palencia		Placencia.
	Carrion		Aguilar de Campo.
	Reinosa		
	Becerril de Campos		
	Duenas		
	Herrera de Rio Pisuerga		
	Toro		
	Torquemada		
Zamora		Zamora	Zamora.
			Alaejos.
Salamanca		Salamanca	Salamanca.
			Alba de Tormes.
	Ledesma	Civdad Rodrigo	Civdad Rodrigo.
		San Felices de los Gallegos	
Valladolid	Valladolid		Valladolid.
	Medina del Compo		
	Olmedo		
	Puebla de Sanabria	Puebla de Sanabria	
	Tordesillas		
Avila	Madrigal		
	Arevalo		
Burgos	Burgos		Burgos.
	Briviesca		
	Lerma		
	San Domingo de la Colzada		
	Castroxerix		

* O. M. or Military Order.

BOOK CXXXIX	Lieutenancies.	Corregimentos.	Governments.	Alcadias Mayoras.
		The Merindas of Old Castille*		
	Segovia	Segovia		Aguilar del Rio Alama.
		Soria		
		Agreda		
		Alfaro		
		Logrono		
		Arnedo		
		Calahora		
		Riaza		
	Santander		Santander	Santander.
			Santona	
	Badajoz		Badajoz	Badajoz.
		Caceres	Olivenza	Albuquerque.
		Coria		
		Plasencia	Alcantara, O. M.	
		Trujillo	Gata, O. M.	
		Guadalcanal, O.M.	Jeres de los Cabelleros, O. M.	
			Llerena, O. M.	
			Merida, O. M.	
			Valencia de Alcantara, O. M.	
			Villa Nueva de la Serena, O. M.	
	Madrid	Madrid		
		Alcala de Henares		
		Chinchon		
	Guadalaxara	Guadalaxara		Guadalaxara.
		Atienza		
		Ita		
		Jadraque		
		Medina Celi		
		Molina de Aragon		
	Toledo	Toledo	Ocana, O. M.	
		Talavera de la Reina		
		Illescas		
		Lillo		
	Cuenca	Cuenca		Alarcon.
		Huete		
		Requena		
		San Clemente		
		Sisanta y Vara del Rey		

* Six of the merindas are situated in the province or lieutenancy of Burgos; Campo, Horna and Valdelugana form part of them.

Provinces.	Corregiementos.	Governments.	Alcadias Mayoras.
	Utiel		
	Tarazona		
Civdad Real	Civdad Real	Penas de San Pedro	
	Alcaraz	Almaden, O. M.	
	Villa Nueva de los Infantes	Almagro, O. M.	
		Infantes, O. M.	
Valencia	Valencia		Valencia.
	Alcoy		
		Alcira	Alcira.
		Alicante	Alicante.
	Castellon de la Plana	Castellon de la Plana	Castellon de la Plana.
	Denia	Denia	
	Jejona		
	Morella	Morella	Morella.
	Onteniente	Murviedro	
	Orihuela	Orihuela	Orihuela.
	Peniscola	Peniscola	
	San Felipe	San Felipe	San Felipe.
Nuevas Poplaziones			Carolina.
Jaen	Jaen	Martos, O. M.	
	Andujar		
	Ubeda		
	Alcala la Real		Alcala la Real.
	Alcaudete		
	Marcha Real		
Cordova	Cordova		Cordova.
	Bujalance		Aguilar de la Frontera.
	Lucena		
	Montilla		
	Montoro		
	Pedroches		
Seville	Seville	Ayamonte	San Lucar la Mayor.
	Almonta	San Lucar de Guadiana	
	Carmona		
	Ecija		Ecija.
	Gibraleon		
	Moguer		
	Niebla		
	Paradas		
	Pruna		
	Rota y Chipiona		
Cadiz		Cadiz	Cadiz.

BOOK CXXXIX.

Provinces.	Corregiementos.	Government.	Alcadias Mayoras.
	Alcala de los Gazules	Puerto de Santa Maria	Puerto de Santa Maria.
	Arcos de la Frontera	San Lucar de Barrameda	San Lucar de Barrameda.
	Chielana		
	Conil		
	Xeres de la Frontera		Xerxes de la Frontera.
	Trebujena	Tarifa	Tarifa.
	Villa Martin		
Grenada	Grenada	Grenada	Grenada.
	Ujijar in the Alpuxaras		
		Almeira	Almeira.
			Alboloduy.
		Motril	Motril.
	Antequera		Antequera.
	Baza		Adra, Berja, & Dalias.
	Coin		
	Guadix		Calahora de Grenada.
Maluga		Malaga	Malaga.
	Gibraltar		
	Marbella		
	Ronda		Ronda.
	Velez Malaga		
Murcia	Murcia		Murcia.
	Albacete	Cieza, O. M.	
	Chincilla		
	Mula		
Carthagena		Carthagena	Carthagena.
Mallorca	Mahon	Mahon	
Palma	Palma	Palma	Palma.
		Iviza	

DIVISION OF SPAIN INTO LIEUTENANCIES,

WITH THE NUMBER OF PROVINCES, THEIR POPULATION, AND THAT OF THE PRINCIPAL TOWNS IN EACH PROVINCE, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST DOCUMENTS.

A. *Lieutenancy of Navarre.*

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Navarre	Navarre	272,000	Pampeluna	15,000
			Tudela	8,000
			Estella	6,000
			Tafalla	5,000

B. *Lieutenancy of Guipuscoa.*

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
The Vascongades.	Guipuscoa	127,000	St. Sebastian	9,000
			Fontarabia	2,000
			Tolosa,	5,000
			Vergara or Bergara	4,000
	Biscay	133,000	Bilbao	15,000
			Orduna	3,000
	Alava	85,000	Vittoria	7,000

C. *Lieutenancy of Gallicia.*

Asturias.	Asturias	420,000	Oviedo	10,000
			Aviles	6,000
			Gijon	6,000
Gallicia.	Santiago	535,000	Santiago	28,000
			Pontevedra	4,000
			Padron	4,000
			Muros	4,000
	Betanzos	167,000	Betanzos	5,000
			Ferrol	13,000
	Corunna	73,000	Corunna	18,000
	Lugo	382,000	Lugo	7,000
	Orense	382,000	Orense	4,000
	Tuy	198,000	Tuy	6,000
			Ribadavia	2,000
	Mondonebo	122,000	Mondonedo	6,000
			Ribadeo	3,000

D. *Lieutenancy of Arragon.*

Arragon.	Arragon	77,000	Saragossa	55,000
			Jaca	3,000
			Alcaniz	6,000
			Barbastro	7,000
			Borja	3,000
			Fraga	5,000
			Huesca	9,000
			Carinena	3,000
			Calatayud	6,000
			Daroca	6,000
			Montalban	3,000
			Teruel	7,000
			Taragona	10,000

E. *Lieutenancy of Catalonia.*

Catalonia	1,125,000	Barcelona	120,000
		Cervera	5,000
		Figueres	7,000
		Girone	6,000
		Lerida	12,000
		Manresa	13,000
		Mataro	13,000
		Tarragona	11,000
		Tortosa	16,000
		Villa Franca de Penades	4,000
		Vich	12,000

BOOK CXXXIX.

F. *Lieutenancy of Old Castille.*

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Old Castile	Avila	107,000	Avila	4,000
			Arevalo	2,000
	Burgos	366,000	Burgos	12,000
			Aranda de Duero	4,000
	Segovia	140,000	Segovia	12,000
			St. Ildefonse	4,000
	Soria	262,000	Soria	5,000
			Calahora	6,000
			Agredo	3,000
	Santander	183,000	Santander	18,000
Leon	Leon	290,000	Leon	5,000
			Astorga	4,000
	Palencia	205,000	Palencia	10,000
			Carrion de los Condes	3,000
	Toro, Zamora	152,000	Toro	9,000
			Zamora	7,000
	Salamanca	235,000	Salamanca	14,000
			Civdad Rodrigo	4,000
	Valladolid	195,000	Valladolid	32,000
			Medino del Campo	3,000
			Medino de Rio Seco	4,000
			Tordesilas	3,000

G. *Lieutenancy of Estremadura.*

Estremadura	Estremadura	670,000	Badajoz	12,000
			Albuquerque	6,000
			Alcantara	3,000
			Caceres	10,000
			Ceclavin	5,000
			Llerena	6,000
			Merida	5,000
			Olivenza	10,000
			Plasencia	6,000
			Trusillo	4,000
			Xeres de los Cavalleros	9,000
			Zafra	10,000

H. *Lieutenancy of New Castile.*

NewCastile	Madrid	348,000	Madrid	201,000
			Alcada de Henares	4,000
	Guadalaxara	217,000	Guadalaxara	7,000
			Brihuega	4,000
			Siguenza	5,000
	Toledo	347,000	Toledo	15,000
			Aranjuez	4,000
			Consuegra	6,000
			Guardia	4,000
			Ocana	5,000
	Cuenca	328,000	Cuenca	7,000
			Requena	10,000
	Mancha	375,000	Civdad Real	10,000
			Alcaraz	10,000
			Manzanares	9,000

I. *Lieutenancy of Valencia and Murcia.*

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Valencia		1,048,000	Valencia	66,000
			Alcala de Chisvert	6,000
			Alcira	8,000
			Alcoy	18,000
			Alicante	23,000
			Benicarlo	5,000
			Castellon de la Plana	15,000
			Carcagente	5,000
			Concentayna	7,000
			Callera	7,000
			Denia	3,000
			Elda	4,000
			Elcha	4,000
			Gandia	6,000
			Murviedro	6,000
			Orihuela	25,000
			Oliva	5,000
			Segorbe	6,000
			San Felipe	15,000
			Venaros	9,000
			Villa Real	8,000
			Xixoma	4,000
Murcia		458,000	Murcia	35,000
			Albacete	9,000
			Almansa	7,000
			Callaspara	3,000
			Carthagena	29,000
			Cehegin	10,000
			Chinchilla	10,000
			Jumilla	8,000
			Lorea	40,000
			Totana	8,000
			Villena	12,000
			Yecla	8,000

J. *Lieutenaney of Andalusia.*

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Andalusia	New Population	13,000	Carolina	3,000
	Jaen	267,000	Jaen	18,000
			Andujar	10,000
			Alcala Real	14,000
			Alcandete	6,000
			Baeza	10,000
			Baylen	4,000
			Martos	10,000
			Ubeda	15,000
	Cordova	370,000	Cordova	46,000
			Baena	14,000
			Bujalance	14,000
			Lucena	19,000
			Montilla	13,000
			Priego	16,000

BOOK CXXXIX.

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.	Population.
Andalusia	Seville	648,000	Seville	91,000
			Aracena	5,000
			Ayamonte	6,000
			Carmona	18,000
			Constantina	6,000
			Ecija	34,000
			Estepa	10,000
			Fregenal	5,000
			Huelva	8,000
			Marchena	13,000
			Osuna	16,000
			Utrera	11,000
	Cadiz	245,000	Cadiz	53,000
			Algesiras	13,000
			Arcos de la Frontera	10,000
			Medina Sidonia	9,000
			Porta San Maria	17,000
			Rota	8,000
			San Fernando, (Island of Leon)	3,000
			San Lucar de Barrameda	16,000
			Tarifa	13,000
			Xeres de la Frontera	31,000

K. *Lieutenancy of Grenada and Malagā.*

Andalusia	Grenada	1,108,000	Grenada	80,000
			Adra	9,000
			Alhama	6,000
			Almunecar	5,000
			Almeira	19,000
			Baza	10,000
			Guadix	9,000
			Loja	14,000
			Motril	10,000
			Torviscon	15,000
	Malaga.		Malaga	52,000
			Antequera	20,000
			Estepona	9,000
			Marbella	4,000
			Ronda	18,000
			Velez Malaga	14,000

L. *Lieutenancy of Majorca.*

Barlearic Islands.	Balearic Islands.	250,000	Majorca	Palma	34,000
				Manacar	9,000
				Pollenza	7,000
				Soller	8,000
			Minorca	Mahon	19,000
				Alayor	5,000
				Civdadela	7,000
				Mercadal	4,000
			Ivica	Ivica	5,000

Total population 13,560,000.

Table of the Spanish Colonies.

General Divisions.	Provinces.	Population.	Towns.		Population.
Africa	Presidias, or places on the coast	11,000		Ceuta	9,000
				Alhucemas, Melcila	2,000
	Canary Islands	196,000	Teneriffe	Santa Cruz	8,000
				SanCristoval	9,000
			Great Canary	Palmas	9,000
				Aguimez	5,000
				Arucas	4,000
				Guia	3,000
				Tirajana	3,000
	Island of Annobon, Island of Fernando-Po	1,000	Palma	Santa Cruz	5,000
			Lancerote	Teguise	2,000
Oceanica	Philipine Islands, MarianIslands	2,640,000	Luconia	Manilla	140,000
				Carite	6,000
				Tayabes	13,000
America	Antilles	1,240,000	Cuba	Havanna	130,000
				Bayamo	12,000
				Matanzas	7,000
				Puerto Principe	30,000
				Santiago	20,000
			PuertoRico	San Juan	30,000

Total population of the colonies	4,088,000
Total population of Spain	13,560,000*
Total population of the Spanish monarchy	17,648,000

Number of Hospitals and other Institutions.

Hospitals	2,231
Houses of entertainment for monks and ecclesiastics	106
Foundling hospitals	67
Places of retreat	32
Prisons	5,898
Colleges and boarding houses	383
Houses of education	168

* The number of people in the hospitals, prisons, colleges, and ecclesiastical seminaries has not been determined. The same remark is applicable to the number of criminals, smugglers, gipsies and persons without any means of subsistence. Their number has been vaguely estimated by M. Minano at 127,345

The ecclesiastics amount to	149,696
The army	64,000
Inhabitants of Spain	13,560,000
Thus the total population is equal to	13,901,041

BOOK CXXXIX.

Number of Clergy in 1826.

Archbishops and bishops	61
Canons	2,363
Prebends	1,869
Curates	16,481
Vicars	4,929
Incumbents having great benefices	17,411
Do. small benefices	9,088
Expectants (*demandantes*)	3,467
Hermits and pilgrims	1,300
Number of men in the convents	61,327
Do. women do.	31,400
Total number	146,696

Cattle, &c. in the kingdom of Leon and Castile, according to the documents published by M. Minano in 1826.

	Belonging to Laymen.	Ecclesiastics.	Total number.
Horned cattle	2,729,551	215,334	2,944,885
Horses	361,523	38,972	400,495
Mules	206,967	16,679	223,646
Sheep	16,792,788	1,894,371	18,687,159
Goats	4,828,068	359,600	5,187,668
Asses	618,342	23,446	641,788
Pigs	2,551,152	177,131	2,728,283
Hives	1,467,773	229,820	1,697,593

Spanish Revenue.

Customs	L.939,170
Tobacco	625,000
Salt	410,917
Stamps	137,900
Lottery	90,000
Tax on the population of Grenada	8,750
Lanzas (contributions exacted from the grandees as an equivalent for the lances or horsemen which they furnished formerly to the crown	119,170
Cruzada (ancient tax levied for the crusades)	197,087
Escusado (subsidy granted by the pope from the revenue of the clergy)	215,000
Novemo (ninth part of the tithes granted by the pope)	242,917
Tertias (two ninths of the tithes)	125,000
Diezmo (tax on the river fishings in Seville)	417
Half of the annats belonging to the secular clergy	9,325
Casa Aposento (ancient tax claimed by the king's purveyors)	7,292

Penas de Camera (fines incurred after three appeals to the supreme council)	12,500
Mesadas (ecclesiastical dues and annats)	15,422
Posts, gunpowder, saltpetre and other products	1,320,000
Total	L.4,376,776
Amount of the national debt	L.150,000,000

Army.	*Navy.*			
Effective Men.	Ships of the Line.	Frigates.	Other Vessels	Men in the Naval Service.
50,000*	10	16	30	14,000

* If the invalids, pensioners, and men on the sick list be included, the whole number may amount to 120,000. The militia consists of 40,000.

BOOK CXL.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—France. Historical notice.

BOOK CXL

THE influence of France may be compared to that which ancient Greece possessed over the civilized world; the French language has become the language of courts and ambassadors; the literature of the same people has been admired by the enlightened of every nation; since the revolution, French philosophers have contributed, perhaps more than those of any other country, to extend the limits of science, and French armies crowned with laurels, have dictated their laws to Europe. Those, who consider philosophically certain questions by which geography may be changed into a new science, must examine the causes on which the characters that distinguish a people from neighbouring nations, depend. It cannot be attributed to climate, for the extreme degrees of cold or heat, that modify the physical or moral powers of the inhabitants, are not felt in France; neither can the causes be discovered in the inequalities of the soil, for there are no extensive plains or mountainous chains, which by determining men to become husbandmen or shepherds, accelerate or retard the progress of civilization. The question, therefore, depends on other causes, and its solution is not without interest in the description of a country, whose inhabitants have enlightened Europe, planted the seeds of freedom in America, and overturned empires in their political commotions.

Ancient inhabitants.

The population of France belongs to three different races; viz. the *Celtic*, which forms nearly three-fourths of the inhabitants, the *Germanic* or the people in the ancient

provinces of Flanders, Alsace, and in part of Lorraine, and lastly, the *Pelasgian*, diffused through the country near the Mediterranean.* The changes occasioned by civilization may modify, but cannot wholly destroy the character of the inhabitants. It is easy to discover the French of the present day in the description of the Celts, given by Cesar, Strabo and other writers. Although they mixed with the Franks,—their conquerors, the traits by which they were distinguished, have not been effaced. The *Celtæ-Galli* or Gauls were gay, frivolous, quick of apprehension, easily excited, prompt in forming their resolutions, brave in battle, attached to their country, and zealous of their freedom. Their frankness and impetuosity are so great, adds the Greek geographer, that each man thinks it incumbent on him to resent an injury offered to his neighbour.† They speak often of their glorious deeds, says Cesar, but probably from their natural inconstancy, they are presumptuous after success, and dejected after defeat.‡ The ancients describe them as ostentatious and fond of ornaments,§ affable to strangers, and practising hospitality; according to their laws, the man who murdered a stranger, was punished with death, while he who murdered a native, was only sent into exile. At a very remote period, they elected their own magistrates, limited the authority of their princes, and never granted subsidies until they had deliberated in their popular assemblies. Their politeness distinguished them from all the people, whom the Greeks and Romans comprehended under the name of barbarians. Such are the accounts left by the ancients of the Celts, and they are in some respects still applicable to the French. Thus, too, the difference which has been observed between the same people and other inhabitants of Europe, may be perhaps explained. The Celts are indebted to their physical constitution for the qualities which render them to a certain degree susceptible of perfectibili-

*This division seems to have been derived not so much from ethnographical principles as from the physical character of the inhabitants.

† Strabo, Book IV. ch. 4.

‡ De Bello Gallico, Liber XIV. cap. 4.

§ Ammianus Marcellinus, Book LXV. chap. 13.

BOOK CXL.

ty; these qualities have been transmitted from generation to generation, the soil which they occupied, and which they still possess, has been rendered more productive by their labour, and so long as the progress of improvement continues, France is likely to be the most flourishing country in Europe.

Division of Gaul under the Romans.

The people of the Celtic race whom the ancients called *Galli* or *Valli*, were renowned for their conquests more than seven centuries before the epoch which has been assigned to the foundation of Rome. It is unnecessary to indicate the period of their first migration, history has preserved but a confused remembrance of it. It is known that they made several invasions into Italy, and that the Romans, while in the height of their power, employed vast armies to subdue them. Sixty years of war and carnage were hardly sufficient to reduce their country into Roman provinces, which occupied nearly the same space that the kingdom of France does at present. The glory of terminating these expeditions was reserved for Cesar, and it is from the writings of the same person that the Romans derived their knowledge concerning the different nations in that part of Gaul which they called Transalpine (*Gallia Transalpina*). When the general entered the country, it was inhabited by three principal tribes or nations; the *Celtæ* and *Aquitani*, who, although they spoke distinct dialects, belonged evidently to the Celtic race, and the *Belgæ* of Germanic extraction, who inhabited the northern part of the country. Gaul was divided into four provinces by Augustus;* Probus subdivided it into seven,† Diocletian into twelve,‡ Valentinian into fourteen,§ and during the reign of Gratian, the number amounted to seventeen.‖ We

* Belgium, Celtic Gaul, Aquitaine and Narbonnaise.

† Belgium, the first and second Germany, the Lyonnaise, the Viennoise, Narbonnaise and Aquitaine.

‡ The first and second Belgium, the first and second Germany, the Great Sequanaise, the first and second Lyonnaise, Narbonnaise, Viennoise and Aquitaine, to which were added, the Greek Alps, comprehending part of Switzerland and Savoy, and the maritime Alps, or part of Provence and the county of Nice.

§ By the subdivision of Aquitaine into three parts, the first and second Aquitaine and Novempopulania.

‖ By the division of the two Lyonnaise into four, and Narbonnaise into two.

shall enumerate the inhabitants of the fifteen provinces which made up the present territory of France.*

First Narbonnaise.

The First Narbonnaise, *(Narbonensis Prima)*, formed by the Roussillon, the greater part of the country of Foix and Conserans, was inhabited by the *Sardones*, a people probably sprung from an Illyrian colony; and by the *Volcæ*, divided into the eastern and the western; the former were surnamed the *Arecomici*, their lands extended to the banks of the Rhone; the latter or the *Tectosages*, a warlike people, carried their arms into Germany, and founded Ancyra in an Asiatic country, which has been called Galatia from its Gallic inhabitants.

The second Narbonnaise.

The Second Narbonnaise *(Narbonensis Secunda)*, which comprehended the greater part of Provence, was inhabited by the *Tricorii*, a people mentioned by Livy in his account of Annibal's expedition, by the *Saluvii* or *Salyes*, a tribe formidable to their neighbours and also by the *Oxybii*, who distinguished themselves in the wars against the Romans.

Maritime Alps.

Within the Maritime Alps, *(Alpes Maritimæ)* were contained part of Dauphiny, Provence and Piemont. The *Caturiges*, who inhabited the soil of France, disputed with Cesar the passage of their mountains.

Novempopulania.

Novempopulania comprehended the territory of Gascony, Armagnac, Bearn and Lower Navarre. It was peopled by the *Boii*, whom Ausonius calls *Picci*, because their country abounded with pitch or resin, by the *Ausci* who inhabited Auch, by the *Bigerrones* in Bigorre and Berin, who covered themselves in winter with the skins of animals, and lastly, by the *Tarbelli* and *Tarusates*, who resisted Cesar and Crassus.

First Aquitaine.

The First Aquitaine *(Aquitania Prima)* was the most important province of Gaul, in it were comprehended Quercy, Rouergue, Auvergne, Bourbonnais, Marche, Limousin, Velai with Gevaudan, a considerable portion of Languedoc, Berry, and a part of Poitou. It was peopled by the *Cadurci*, whose principal city was Cahors, by the *Arver-*

* The Greek Alps formed a part of Savoy, the second Germany will be described in the account of the Netherlands.

BOOK CXI.

ni or inhabitants of Auvergne, the most warlike nation of the Celtic race, by the *Lemovices* or Limousins, who raised an army of ten thousand men, and by the *Bituriges* who possessed an extensive territory long before the invasion of Cesar.

Second Aquitania.

The Second Aquitaine *(Aquitania Secunda)* comprehended a part of Poitou, Saintonge, Angoumois, Perigord, Agenois and the rest of Guienne. The inhabitants were the *Pictones* or *Pictavi*, the *Santones* in the territory of Saintes, Coignac and Angouleme, the *Petrocorii* or ancestors of the Perigourdins, the *Meduli* in the country of Medoc, the *Bituriges-Vivisci* or people of Bordelais.

Viennoise.

Viennoise *(Vienensis)* including part of Provence, part of Dauphiny, the principality of Orange, part of Languedoc and Savoy together with the territory of Geneva. The inhabitants were the *Anatilii* on both banks of the Rhone, the *Cavares* and *Allobroges* on the right bank of the same river, the *Verontii*, a warlike people, included by Rome in the number of her allies, and lastly the Helvii.

Great Sequanaise.

The Great Sequanaise *(Maxima Sequanorum)* was formed by part of Burgundy, Franche-Comté, Bassigny, Bresse and a portion of Switzerland. All the French part of the same province was included in the territory of the *Sequani*, from which the Romans imported their best bacon.*

First Lyonnaise.

The First Lyonnaise *(Lugdunensis Prima)* was made up of Lyonnaise, Beaujolais, Forez, and a part of Burgundy, Nivernais, Franche-Comte and Champagne. It was inhabited by two powerful nations, by the *Ambarri*, who, during the reign of the Ancient Tarquin, sent colonies into Italy, and by the Ædui, the allies of the Romans before the invasion of Cesar into Gaul; they were governed by a president or elective chief, who was not permitted to leave the territory of the republic.

Second Lyonnaise.

The Second Lyonnaise *(Lugdunensis Secunda)* comprehended Normandy, French Vexin and the greater part of Perche. It contained nine different tribes, and a resemblance still subsists between their names and the names of different parts of the country. The *Caletes* inhabited the

* Strabo, Book IV. chap. 3. § 2.

country of Caux; the *Eburovices*, the territory of Evreux; the *Lexovii*, Lizieux; the *Saii*, Seez; the *Baiocasses*, Bayeux; the *Venelli*, Valogne; the *Avrincatæ*, Avranches; the *Veducasses*, the city of Vieux, now a small village near Caen; and the *Velioeasses*, Vexin.

Third Lyonnaise.

The people of the Third Lyonnaise, (*Lugdunensis Tertia*), were the *Redones* in the territory of Rennes, the *Veneti* in Vennes, a wealthy and commercial people, the *Mamnetes* in Mantes, the *Arvii* on the banks of the Arve; a feeder of the Sarthe, the *Cennomani*, in the country round Mans, the *Andecavi* in the territory of Angers. Thus it appears that the province was made up of Brittany, Maine, Anjou and Tourraine.

Fourth Lyonnaise.

As to the Fourth Lyonnaise (*Lugdunensis Quarta*), six different tribes were settled in Beauce, the isle of France, Brie, a part of Champagne, Burgundy, Nivernais, Gatinais and Orleanais; these tribes were the *Carnutes* in Chartrain, the *Parisii* round Paris, the *Meldi* in the territory of Meux, the *Tricasses* in the neighbourhood of Troyes, the *Seriones* who inhabited Sens and Auxerre, and sent armed colonists into Italy; lastly the Aureliani in the territory of Orleans.

First Belgium.

The First Belgium (*Belgica Prima*) was formed by the dutchy of Luxembourg, part of the territory of Treves and the province of Gueldre. It was partly inhabited by the *Treveri*, a people that have been already mentioned, and also by the *Cærisi* of whom some account shall be given in the chapter on the Netherlands. The people in the French part of the province were the *Mediomatrici* who inhabited Messin, the *Verodunenses* in the country round Verdun, and the *Leuci* who possessed a considerable territory, including Bar, Toul and part of Lorraine.

Second Belgium.

The Second Belgium (*Belgica Secunda*) was the country of the brave and proud *Nervii*, they inhabited part of the Netherlands, Hainault and Cambresis; the *Morini*, an industrious people, who carried on a trade in linen, occupied part of Picardy and French Flanders. The *Ambiani* in the territory of Amiens, were renowned for their cavalry: The *Bellovaci* were settled in Bauvaisis. The *Sylvanectes* possessed Valois or the country round Senlis. The *Suessiones*

BOOK CXL.

were a powerful people in Soissonnais and Champagne. The *Reni* inhabited the territory of Reims and Laon, and the *Catalani*, the country round Chalons.

First Germany.

The First Germany *(Germania Prima)* extended along both banks of the Rhine; besides those who resided in the French part of the province, it was peopled by the *Treveri* and *Nemetes*, the *Vangiones*, *Tribocci* and different tribes that have been already mentioned in the account of the Bavarian circle on the Rhine; but the Tribocci were also settled in the neighbourhood of Strasburg and Saverne, while the *Rauraci*, the allies of the Helvetii, inhabited the districts round Neuf-Brissac.

Celtic Language.

Different dialects were spoken by the tribes or nations that made up the Celtic race. Some persons amongst them, more learned than the rest, appear to have been acquainted with the Greek characters; it is probable, however, that the Veneti and other tribes called *Armoricans*, because they lived near the sea,* adopted the written characters of the Phenicians in consequence of their commercial intercourse with that people. As to the Irish Celts, it is supposed that they made use of distinct characters. The Gaelic still spoken in several parts of the British islands,† may be divided into several branches or dialects, one of which is the *Kumbre* or Celto-Belgic, traces of it may be discovered in Flanders and the kingdom of the Netherlands. The peasants in Brittany speak the *Breyzad* or Low-Breton, of which the dialects are not fewer than four, —the *Leonard*, used in the neighbourhood of St. Pol de Leon, the *Trecorian* spoken by the people of Treguier, the *Cornish* in the territory of Quimper Corentin, and the *Vennetan* in the territory of Vannes.‡

Government of the Celts.

Celtic Gael formed a vast federative state, consisting of petty republics, in which the governments were different; in some the chiefs were elected for a limited period, in

* From the Breton word *Armorik*, compounded of the preposition *ar* on or above, and *morik*, a diminutive of *mor*, which signifies the sea.

† See the account of England.

‡ There are not more than twenty-two letters in the Breyzad; among them may be remarked the *nasal n*, the j, the liquid *l* of the French, and the German *ch*. See the *Atlas Ethnographique* by Adrian Balbi.

others the office was held during life, and these magistrates assumed the name of kings. Matters of the greatest importance, the questions concerning peace or war, were agitated in the assemblies formed by the deputies from the republics. The time in which they were held, was the beginning of spring, and every free man was obliged to repair to them, for it was the season not only of the most important civil, but of the most solemn religious festival. "In their assemblies," says Strabo,* "the Gauls observed a custom which was peculiar to them; if any one interrupted the person, who was speaking, the usher of the assembly, holding a naked sword in his hand, ordered him to be silent; if he continued, the orders were repeated a second and a third time, but if he still persisted, his mantle was rent in several places." According to a Greek poet and geographer,† a band of musicians assisted in their councils, and when the tumult of the speakers interrupted the deliberations, it was the business of the band to play such music as was likely to have some effect in allaying the passions.

Manners.

In early ages, the people of the Celtic race were divided into many wandering tribes, at a later period they became stationary, but the desire of liberty made them avoid the enclosure of cities; their towns always open, consisted of cottages separated by gardens, and situated on the skirts of a wood, or the banks of a river. Agriculture was reserved for the slaves of both sexes, freemen devoted themselves exclusively to the profession of arms, and like the present Swiss, when they could not find employment in their own country, they enlisted in the service of a foreigner. They reared a great number of oxen, horses, and sheep, they lived on milk, animal food, and the produce of the chase. If Pliny may be believed, the same people, who adopted so readily the usages of civilized life, were *anthropophagi* before the arrival of the Romans into Gaul. The skulls of the enemies slain in battle, were girt with gold or silver, and served as drinking cups

* Book 4th, ch. 4. sect. 1.

† Scymnos of Chios, the period in which he lived, has not been ascertained.

BOOK CXL.

in their carousals; wine, hydromel, and beer sparkled on the board, they passed from one person to another, but they were never offered to the ignoble, in other words, to those who had not distinguished themselves in an engagement, for in early times, among the Celts, as well as among every other barbarous people, titles of nobility were only granted to such as had shed the blood of their fellow-creatures. It has been said that the custom of duels was introduced into the country by the Franks; but the honour which the Celts attached to the profession of arms in the remotest ages, established amongst them the right of appeal to the sword, and a Celt was disgraced by refusing a challenge. A freeman was never seen in public without his arms, hence, without doubt, the custom, which the revolution has modified, of wearing a sword at the court and on occasions of ceremony. Long hair was considered a great ornament by both sexes; they stained their fair hair into a red colour by means of a particular unguent, in the same manner as their descendants render the hair white by the use of powder. The men wore long chains of gold round their necks, and loaded their arms and wrists with bracelets of the same metal. They rubbed their face with butter to make it shining, and the women used the foam of beer for the same purpose.

Marriage.

Polygamy was not permitted by the Celts; when a girl was marriageable, her parents invited all her suitors to a feast, and the first to whom she presented the washing vessel, was the person of her choice. In the marriage ceremony it was customary for the bride to address her husband in the following manner,—You are my master and my husband; I am your servant. The master had the power of life and death over her, and if a wife was convicted of having killed her husband, she was burned alive.* Adultery was severely punished, and divorce was sanctioned by law. Public assemblies, marriages and funerals were so many occasions for sumptuous repasts, which always terminated in dancing.

Worship.

The Celts had no temples; they thought the greatness

* Cesar de Bello Gallico, Book VI. chap. 19.

of the divine power, accorded ill with the smallness of human buildings; it was in the forests that they raised their prayers to heaven, but they placed shapeless stones near each other, that enclosed a sort of sanctuary, or they erected a huge and isolated stone, around which their religious meetings were held. Although, according to Cesar, they worshipped the same gods as the Romans, it is certain they considered it impious to represent a divinity under the form of a man. The isolated stones, the *menhirs* and *peulvans*, as they were called, or a lofty and venerable oak, were the symbols which they adored. They admitted an infinite intelligence, the first cause of the harmony that prevails in the universe. *Teut* or *Teutates*, the Celtic Mercury, created the world; *Esus* was their Mars, *Kernunos*, their Bacchus, and *Ogmios*, their Hercules. *Belen*, *Woden* and the other gods were only secondary divinities. They rendered besides a sort of religious homage to the four elements, to springs, fountains and rivers, to the sun and the moon. It was by the light of the moon that the priests made the multitude assemble in their ancient forests or in other places that excited the mind to superstition. But their priests were divided into different classes. The *Eubages* studied and interpreted nature;* the bards or *Saronides* cultivated poetry, that their laws might be more readily committed to memory by the people; they sung the exploits of heroes, and transmitted the history of great events to posterity; the *Vates* sacrificed the victims, and the druids were the sages who predicted futurity after examining the entrails.† Skilled in casuistry, they directed the people in matters of conscience; versed in all the sciences, it was supposed they could cure all diseases. They administered justice, presided in the assemblies of the nation, and at the judicial trials called the judgments of God, in which the proofs by fire, iron and water, determined the guilt or innocence of the accused. In short, they possessed so much credit that no affair of any consequence, relative to public or domestic policy, could be undertaken without their advice. They led the people into the belief that guilty actions and sins offend-

* Ammianus Marcellinus. † Diodorus Siculus, Book V.

BOOK CXL.

ed the divinity, and that expiatory sacrifices were necessary to deliver the soul from impending wrath; hence the great number of animals, which were slain; but as man is the noblest of animals, they thought human blood most acceptable to the gods. The victims were generally chosen among the prisoners of war; but on occasions of public calamity, fanatics offered themselves voluntarily to be sacrificed, and died contented,—leaving behind them an example of devotedness, and a great reputation for piety. The Celtic clergy made use of their religion to inculcate the practice of moral duties; they affirmed that the gates of paradise were closed against those who died by their own hands, thus suicides were numbered among the acts of the wicked. He, who outraged public morals, was liable to be excommunicated, by which he was prevented from mixing in civil or religious assemblies, and was regarded as an object of abhorrence by his fellow citizens. The druids established fasts for political purposes, they enjoined their disciples to abstain from animal food in the middle of summer, because in that season of the year, vegetables were considered more wholesome.

Mistletoe.

The oak was held in veneration by the Gauls, and the mistletoe, which is so seldom seen on the same tree, was probably for that very reason consecrated to the divinity. It was a sovereign remedy for every evil, and the water in which it was infused, rendered sterile animals, fruitful.* The year was divided into lunar months, and on the first day of every year, the druids forming an imposing band, marched through the forests, cut the parasitical plant with a golden knife, collected it in a *saye* or white tunic, and distributed it afterwards to an eager multitude. The ceremony was announced by the priests, who travelled through the country, and summoned the inhabitants by repeating with a loud voice,—*aguilaneuf*,† an exclamation which is still known in some of the provinces.

Chief of the Druids. Druidesses.

The druids acknowledged a chief to whom they submitted in all things, he resided at Chartrain; but none

* Pliny, Book XVI chap. 44.

† Perhaps *Au gui l'an neuf*, to the mistletoe, it is the new year.

were admitted to the sacerdotal offices before a noviciate of twenty years. Their wives shared the veneration in which their husbands were held by the people; they were the judges of family quarrels, and their decisions could not be revoked; in the art of predicting futurity, they acquired a greater celebrity than the men; hence perhaps the origin of the popular superstitions concerning faires,—superstitions long believed in France.

Influence of the Roman conquests.

The Romans, aware of the advantages they might derive from the courage of the Celts, respected their municipal privileges; they were anxious therefore to civilize them, which was easily done by making them adopt their arts and laws. Provincial governments and titles of Roman citizens were conferred on the chiefs. The Celtic language was mixed with the Latin, particularly in central Gaul, which served as a communication with Germany; but it was necessary to deliver the people from the yoke of the druids. Cesar,* Tiberius† and Claudius‡ employed alternately persuasion and force to abolish the horrid practice of immolating human victims. The forests were destroyed; the people in time repaired to temples, and altars were erected to the gods of the *Capitol*. The religion of the conquerors was mingled with the ancient worship of the druids; and druidesses resided in the temples, where they officiated as priestesses, but they were permitted to remain one day in the year with their husbands,—a privilege they enjoyed while their ancient faith was in its purity; other persons who had taken vows of celibacy, performed in Gaul the offices of vestal virgins.

Christianity substituted for druidism.

But druidism was not wholly abolished when the conquerors and the conquered embraced Christianity. It is probable that the first Christians who converted the Celts, sanctioned certain practices which might contribute to the benign influence of Christianity on a superstitious people; the same practices were approved by Rome, and adopted afterwards in different countries. The Christians had no scruples in considering the druids magicians or men under

* Lucian, Book II.

† Pliny, Book XXXI, ch. 1.

‡ Suetonius, ch. 26.

BOOK CXL.

the power of the devil,—the persecuted priest and their persecuted partisans were unable to resist the zeal and knowledge of the new proselytes.

Burgundians and Visigoths.

Half a century had hardly elapsed, when the Roman power was divided into the western and eastern empires, when Roman provinces were dismembered by the barbarous nations, that had been too long oppressed by the rulers of the world. The Burgundians and other people of the same origin, known by the name of Visigoths, founded about the beginning of the fifth century two contiguous kingdoms in the heart of Gaul. The former besides a part of Switzerland and Savoy, possessed Franche-Comté, Bresse, Dauphiny, Lyonnais, the greater portion of Nivernais, and the adjoining country which from these inhabitants has been called Burgundy. The banks of the Loire were the northern limits of the Visigoths; they ruled over the centre and the south of France, including Provence, the county of Nice, and even a part of Spain.* Numerous hordes that issued from Germany, settled in the Netherlands; they founded some years afterwards, under the command of Pharamond, a petty kingdom, of which the southern limit may be represented by a line drawn from the mouth of the Somme by Amiens and Rethel, enclosing Treves with part of its territory, and terminating on the left bank of the Rhine a short way below Mayence.† Sixty years afterwards, the same Franks, under the conduct of king Clodovech or Clovis, destroyed the remains of Roman power in Gaul, and made themselves masters of all the country between the last mentioned boundary and the limits of the Visigothic and Burgundian kingdoms. At a later period, they crossed the Rhine, extended their conquests into Germany, and left colonists in that part of the country which has been since called Franconia.

Franks.

Gaul was thus divided during twenty years; a third part of the surface was occupied by the Franks, rather the protectors than the oppressors of the Gauls, who were con-

* The kingdom of the Visigoths was founded by Ataulphus in 411, and that of the Burgundians by Gundicar in 413.

† It is generally admitted that the kingdom of the Franks was founded in the year 420.

founded with the Romans, because they had adopted their manners and laws. The victors were distinguished by their appearance, their language and dress. The Franks wore short boots, the arms and the rest of the leg were bare; the body was covered with a narrow short tunic bound by a girdle; their long and fair hair descended below their shoulders.* Their weapons were a long sword, a *francisca* or two-edged hatchet, a javelin divided near the extremity into three branches, representing what the French have since termed a *fleur de lys*, and lastly, a small buckler which they used with great address. The chiefs had formerly abolished most of the imposts; they allowed the ancient inhabitants to retain their customs and magistrates, reserving to themselves the right of appointing dukes over the provinces, counts over the towns, and viscounts over the burghs and villages; but, in the councils of the prince, the Gauls preserved that credit and ascendancy, which are the consequences of superior knowledge.† The proprietors were compelled to share their land with the invaders, but the peasants and the working classes remained in a state of slavery. The slaves of the king were distinguished from the slaves of the Franks and the Gauls; among the latter, many possessed slaves, because the Gallic nobility had been preserved. The Burgundians and the Goths, more barbarous than the Franks, clothed themselves with the skins of wild beasts. The first might be discovered by a round visage, small and sunk eyes, broad shoulders and a deep chest. The second were distinguished by a darker complexion, lively eyes and long plaited hair.‡ Their barbarity or rudeness rendered the Gauls impatient of the yoke, and the same cause contributed in a great degree to the destruction of their monarchies. The ambition of Clovis reduced the Visigoths to the necessity of migrating into Spain; but, after the death of that prince, his sons divided France into four kingdoms, of which Paris, Orleans, Soissons and Metz were the capitals. Additional territory was acquired by succession, conquests, usurpation,

* Sidonius Appollinaris, Book IV epistle 20.

† Gregory of Tours. Books III. VI. VII. VIII. and IX.

‡ Sidonius Appollinaris, Panegyricks of Avitus and Antemius.

BOOK CXL.

or in consequence of murders and other crimes; but the different parts of France and the kingdom of Burgundy were united in the seventh century under a single head. A century afterwards, France was governed during some years by Charlemagne and his brother Carloman, but the first became sole master, and rendered it powerful by his conquests.

France under Charlemagne.

France has never been so powerful as it was under Charlemagne; it was then divided into two parts, the western and the eastern. The first comprehended Provence *Gothia* or *Septimania*, now Languedoc, *Vasconia* or Gascogny, Aquitaine, Burgundia or Burgundy, *Neustria*, including Brittany, Normandy and Flanders, lastly Austrasia, formed by all the country situated between the Rhine and Jura. The countries on the south and on the north of the Alps, the territory extending from the right bank of the Rhine to the mountains of Bohemia, and the banks of the Elbe, made up eastern France. In other words Charlemagne reigned over the greater part of Italy, over Switzerland, Bavaria, Hesse Saxony and Friesland. In the countries between the Drave and the Danube, several nations were tributary to the monarch.

The weight of such an empire was too great for his successor. Lewis the Debonnaire, a weak father and a weak prince, spent his time in contending against his revolted children, and died after having divided amongst them a crown which he was unworthy to wear. France was governed during a century by the princes of the same race, but the kingly power was weakened by the abuses of the feudal system; and when Hugh Capet took possession of the throne in the year 987, he was merely the first baron in the kingdom, and reigned only over Picardy, the Isle de France and Orleanais. The policy of that prince and his successsors was to increase the power of the crown by humbling and degrading the nobility. Berry was purchased in 1100 by Philip the First from the viscount Eudes Arpin; and king John erected it into a dutchy, which became the appanage of the sons of France. Lewis the Gros made no acquisitions or conquests, but by liberating the towns, he raised a barrier against the encroachments of the feudal lords.

France under Hugh Capet and his successors.

In 1202, Philip Augustus seized Tourraine from John Sans-Terre, who had succeeded to it as the descendant of its counts; and in the following year, the same Philip made himself master of Normandy, which from the time of Charles the Simple, had been ceded in perpetuity to Rollo and his Norwegians. Amaury of Montfort gave up Languedoc to Lewis the Eighth, and the cession was ratified in a treaty made with St. Lewis in 1228. Jane of Navarre, at her marriage with Philip the Fair in 1284, united the county of Champagne, which she had received as her dowry, to the dominions of her husband. In 1307, the inhabitants of Lyonnais having gained their freedom, compelled their archbishop to acknowledge the authority of the same king.

State of France under Philip of Valois and his successors.

Dauphiny, which derived its name from Guy the Eighth, the bravest of its princes, surnamed the Dauphin, because he wore on his helmet the figure of a dolphin, was ceded to Philip of Valois in 1349, on condition that the eldest sons of the French kings should assume the title of Dauphins, and also that the country should form a separate sovereignty, and never be incorporated with the kingdom. Charles the Fifth took Poitou, Aunis, Saintonge and Limousin from the English. Charles the Seventh in consequence of his victories over the English, added to his dominions the greater part of Guyenne and Gascony. Lewis the Eleventh humbled the power of the great, and had the good fortune to acquire Maine and Anjou by inheritance, conquests made by Philip Augustus, but more than once detached from the crown, and conferred on princes of the blood. The same monarch seized the dutchy of Burgundy, declaring himself the lawful heir, although there existed at the time a duke of Burgundy, Nevers and Rethel. It was stated however in letters patent, that the dutchy had been united to France with the free will of the states on the following conditions, —the people were not to be deprived of their natural judges, and no subsidy was to be imposed without the consent of the three orders; at the same time the taxes which the people had hitherto paid on wine and the other products of the province, were abolished. The same king took possession of Provence, having proved by several witnesses that Charles of Anjou had made him his heir. The inhabitants received

BOOK CXL.

the same privileges as those which had been granted to Burgundy. Since that period the French kings have on several occasions styled themselves counts of Provence. Francis the First availed himself of the rights which he had acquired by the revolt of the Constable Bourbon, and in 1527 obtained Auvergne, Bourbonnais and La Marche, which belonged to the prince. Some years afterwards, Brittany, of which the inheritance had devolved on his son Francis, was united to the kingdom. In consequence of this junction, Brittany was exempt under his successors from most taxes, being merely subject to a voluntary impost voted by its states. The same gallant and chivalrous king was a poet and the friend of the fine arts; flattery has designated him the protector of letters, although he established the censorship; he was not considered cruel, although by his presence he added the weight of his authority to the punishments of the inquisition. In the same reign the assemblies of notables or influential men were substituted for the states-general, but the crown derived little advantage from the change, for notions of civil and religious liberty were then gaining force; they proved the harbingers of political commotions, or served as instruments for the ambitious and discontented to excite the people.

The corruption of the court and nobility under Henry the Second, Francis the Second and Charles the Ninth, were favourable to the reformation. The principles of the new religion accorded well with the growing desire for knowledge, but the question became a political one, and princes confounded the reformers and their partisans with the opponents of kingly power. The massacre of St. Bartholomew, considered an act of political wisdom by Catharine of Medicis and her son, was devised and executed to rid royalty of its enemies. But the designs of the League assumed a very different appearance during the reign of Henry the Third, for it appeared to be the chief object of the party to put the crown of France on the head of a Spanish prince.

France under Henry the Fourth. Under the reign of Lewis the Thirteenth.

Henry the Fourth, whom the catholic chiefs held in execration, ascended the throne, and added to the kingdom the dominions of his fathers, or the county of Foix and part of Gascogny. France during the reign of

Lewis the Thirteenth was twice agitated by civil wars; but the policy of Richelieu saved the kingdom, and his master gained new laurels by the conquest of Artois in 1640, and of Rousillon in 1642.

Under Lewis the Fourteenth

The reign of Lewis the Fourteenth contributed to the aggrandisement of France; that monarch obtained Nivernais by the total extinction of the feudal system; he took Flanders by conquest in 1667, and some years afterwards made himself master of Franche-Comte; lastly, by a treaty with the emperor of Germany in 1697, the cession of Alsace was ratified. Under Lewis the Fifteenth, Lorraine, formerly a portion of the states belonging to Lothaire,* of whom it bears the name, was added to the kingdom; for it had been ceded to Stanislas, king of Poland, on condition that it should be restored to the crown after his death, an event which happened in 1776. The republic of Genoa gave up Corsica for a sum of money two years afterwards.

Lewis the Fifteenth.

French revolution.

Such were the extent and importance of the French territory during the long and peaceful reign of Lewis the Fifteenth; and the king whose death was not regretted by the nation, left to his successor the difficult task of realizing the expectations which his virtues seemed to promise. The well informed classes were able to appreciate the institutions which they desired, and the king consented to adopt them. But it was necessary to introduce reforms into the finances, and the middling classes were more jealous than ever of the privileges of the nobility. The states-general were no sooner convoked than their respective interests gave rise to two parties; the deputies of the third state, full of confidence in public opinion, swore never to separate until they had framed a constitution. It was accepted by Lewis the Sixteenth, and the pope ceded Avignon and Venaissin to France. The kingdom having been divided into eighty-three departments, the assembly was dissolved.

Reign of terror.

It was succeeded by the legislative assembly, composed of men who did not understand the advantages of a constitutional system, and who allowed themselves to be ruled by a party. The acts of the sovereign were purposely misrepre-

* Grandson of Lewis the Debonnaise. The country was first called *Regnum Lotharii*, then Lotharingia, afterwards *Loherrenne*, *Lorrene*, and lastly, *Lorraine*.

sented,—people dreampt of a republic. A new era soon commenced, marked by a political fanaticism, of which history affords no other example, and by crimes of which the recital fills the mind with horror. Lewis the Sixteenth yielded to the storm, and died with the resignation and tranquillity of a virtuous man. France was shortly afterwards governed by a handful of persons, who, under the name of equality, divided the inhabitants into classes, under the name of liberty, established the most sanguinary despotism, under the name of fraternity, sought associates among the dregs of the people, and under the name of religion, abolished Christianity, and substituted the ceremonies of pagan mythology. Anarchy reigned within, but France repelled foreign armies, while the different parties in the national convention, proscribed, banished and massacred each other. The government was overturned, and the management of affairs committed to two councils and five directors; if they possessed great influence both abroad and at home, it was owing to the victories of the French. The principality of Montbeillard was united to the republic in 1796, and the free territory of Mulhausen in 1798. But after the directory had existed five years, it was destroyed by the efforts of a few, at the head of whom was the young general, who had distinguished himself in Italy and on the plains of Egypt. Bonaparte was named first consul, he put an end to factions, acquired new glory in Italy, and dictated conditions of peace to the emperor of Germany.

The treaty signed at Luneville on the ninth of February 1801, confirmed France in the possession of additional conquests. The course of the Rhine from Wissenburgh to the place where it is called the Waal, served as a limit, and beyond the same point, but within the northern frontiers, were included Belgium, Antwerp and Flushing. The same rich territory formed the twelve departments of Mont-Tonnere, Sarre, Forets, the Rhine and Mozelle, the Sambre and Meuse, the Ourthe, the Roer, the Lower Meuse, Jemmappes, Dyle, Deux-Nethes and the Scheldt. Porentruy on the east of the ancient boundaries was united to the department of the Upper Rhine. The country round Geneva and Chambery formed the departments of Leman

and Mont-Blanc, and the county of Nice was changed into the department of the Maritime Alps. By the treaty of Amiens, peace was restored to Europe on the twenty-seventh of March in the following year, and England gave up the French colonies which she had seized during the preceding wars.

French empire.

In the year 1804, after the victories of Montenotte, Arcola, Rivoli and Marengo, Napoleon received in Paris, from the hand of the sovereign pontiff, the unction with which kings are consecrated, and, as if to heighten the splendour of a title, which added nothing to his glory or his power, the anniversary of his coronation in the following year, was the day in which he gained a very memorable victory,—he defeated the Austrian and Russian armies on the plains of Austrélitz; the treaty of Presburg was the result of the campaign, and Prussia ceded to Napoleon all its rights to the dutchy of Cleves, the country of Neufchatel, Valengin and the territory of Anspach, which the victor exchanged for the dutchy of Berg, and erected Bavaria into a kingdom. The emperor of Austria gave up Dalmatia and the Venetian states, and relinquished the title of king of Italy. Piemont and Liguria were added to France, and changed into the departments of the Doria, the Sezia, Marengo, the Po, the Stura and Montenotte.

Piemont united to the empire.

The extent of the empire was farther increased, and its chief became the protector of German and Swiss confederations. A new rupture followed by new victories changed again the state of Europe; the battles of Jena and Friedland brought about the treaty of Tilsit;* if the importance of the confederation of the Rhine was more than doubled, if France obtained the Ionian islands, it may be attributed to that treaty; Kell, Cassel and Wesel on the right bank of the Rhine were added to the departments on the left. Tuscany, Parma and Placenza, Spoletto, Rome, Valais, Holland, Friesland, Hanover, the bishoprick of Munster, the county of Oldenburg, and the possessions attached to the free towns of Bremen, Hamburg and Lubeck were transformed into French departments.

Part of Italy, the banks of the Ebro, and the coasts of the Baltic added to the empire.

* It was signed on the seventh of July 1807.

BOOK CXL.

Napoleon ruled over the greater part of Europe; when consul, he changed kingdoms into republics, when emperor, republics were changed into kingdoms; he founded monarchies in Germany; twice he spared the crown of Prussia, but lavished the best blood and treasures of the empire to place his brother on the throne of Spain. Having lost the best army in the world on the frozen plains of Russia, abandoned by his allies on the field of battle, he made a glorious resistance in France against the combined efforts of Europe. On the 31st of March 1814, his capital was occupied by the foreigners whom he had often vanquished. Compelled to abdicate, he retired to the island of Elba, leaving to the ancient family of the Bourbons a kingdom which had been confined by treaties within its former limits. The territories of Montbeillard and Mulhausen were all that France retained of her republican conquests.

Return of Napoleon.

The institutions for which the French are indebted to the wisdom of Lewis the Eighteenth, made them forget the disgrace of a foreign occupation; but the reports of the disaffected were believed and circulated through every part of the kingdom; Napoleon availing himself of the general discontent, landed at Frejus on the 1st of March 1815, and entered Paris along with the troops that were sent to take him prisoner. It was necessary to levy an army to oppose the attempts of foreign princes, Napoleon raised one, gained the victory of Ligny, and was defeated the next day on the plains of Waterloo. Having abdicated in favour of his son, he entrusted himself to the generosity of the English government; and the man who at one time thought the world to small for his ambition, was banished on an arid and volcanic rock in the midst of the ocean.

Loss of SarreLewis

France lost a territory of twenty square leagues in extent, which had been fortified by Lewis the Fourteenth, it paid to the foreigners whom it maintained during five years an indemnity of 700,000,000 franks, or nearly L.29,200,000; yet by means of a good government and wise institutions, it recovered its calamities, and resumed the rank which it held among the kingdoms of Europe.

Position of France.

According to its present limits, France extends between

the seventh degree nine minutes, west of the meridian of Paris, and the fifth degree fifty-six minutes to the east of the same meridian; it occupies the space between the forty-second degree twenty minutes, and the fifty-first degree five minutes of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by a part of the Channel and the Pas de Calais, the kingdom of the Netherlands, the great dutchy of Luxemburg, the Prussian provinces on the Lower Rhine, and the Bavarian circle of the Rhine; on the east by the great dutchy of Baden, Switzerland and the Sardinian states; on the south by the Mediterranean and Spain, on the west by the Atlantic ocean and a different part of the Channel.

Dimensions.

The greatest dimensions of its frontiers may be determined by two lines, the one drawn in the direction of north-west to south-east from the most western point on the coast of Brest to Antibes, forming an extent of 239 leagues,* or 574 geographical miles; the other drawn from Givet in the Ardennes to Mount Huromba in the Pyrenees, on the south-east of St. John-Pied-de-port, may be about 208 leagues, or nearly 500 geographical miles in length. The greatest breadth of the kingdom is about 206 leagues from Kersaint in the department of Finistere to the confluence of the Lauter and the Rhine in the department of the Lower Rhine. The extent of coasts, including their sinuations, has been calculated at 490 leagues.† The total superficies, independently of Corsica, amounts to 26,244 square leagues, or 157,464 square geographical miles. The population about the beginning of the year 1827, was equal to 31,820,000 souls, or on an average to 1212 individuals for every square league, or to 202 for every square geographical mile. Although the population has considerably increased since the revolution, for in the year 1790, the same surface

* Twenty-five of these leagues are equal to a degree.

† Their extent, exclusively and inclusively of their sinuations may be seen by the following table:

	Straight line.	Sinuations.
Coasts of the Mediterranean	85 leagues.	120
Atlantic	145	195
Channel	135	175
	365	490

BOOK CXL.

contained only about 25,000,000 inhabitants, and, in 1814, the period of the restoration, 28,500,000, it is not less certain that France might be much more populous. Thus if two departments be taken, forming nearly the two extremes, that of the North which contains 3,403 inhabitants for every square league, and the department of the Lower Alps, which contains only 415, the mean term would be 1714 individuals, and if such were the average number of inhabitants for every square league in the kingdom, the total population of France might amount to 45,000,000. The fruitfulness of the soil cannot be denied, but before so great a number of inhabitants can be maintained, agriculture must be much improved, the different branches of industry must be extended, and new sources of wealth created.

Corsica.

Corsica, the third largest island in the Mediterranean, possesses within itself the elements of prosperity which may one day render it the finest of the French colonies. It may be equal in surface to 495 leagues or 2970 square geographical miles.

Ancient names.

The history of the island from the remotest ages to the period when it was united to France, forms only a distressing picture of war, bloodshed and revolt. Herodotus affirms that it was first inhabited by the Phenicians, who gave it the name of *Collista*, before that period it was called *Therapné*. It was afterwards peopled by a colony of Lacedemonians or, according to Seneca, of Phoceans, who called it *Thera* from Theras, the name of their chief.* Owing perhaps to the frequent communications between the islanders and the Greeks, it was called *Cyrnos*, *Cerneatis* and *Corsis*;† but the Romans having taken it from the Carthaginians, styled it Corsica, a name of which the origin is uncertain.

Ancient inhabitants.

The characters which the ancients have left us of the inhabitants are apparently contradictory. Strabo describes them as living by plunder, and as more savage than wild beasts. "If a Roman general," he adds, "advances into the interior, takes some forts, and brings a certain num-

* Theodotus, Book IV. ch. 147. † Strabo, Book V. ch. 4, sect. 5.

ber of slaves to Rome, their ferocity and stupidity afford a singular spectacle. They consider it either not worth their while to live, or they remain in a state of complete apathy and indifference. However small the price may be for which they are sold, their masters soon discover that they have paid too much for them." But, as the annotator on Strabo remarks,* Diodorus Siculus bears witness to the contrary. According to that writer, the Corsican slaves are the best servants of any; they are from habit singularly clean, and their aversion to their conquerors has tended to preserve the manners of their ancestors. They are sober, brave, hospitable and enthusiastic in their love of freedom. They may be distinguished by lively eyes, a stature about the middle size, and a dark complexion.†

History and revolutions of Corsica.

Corsica was added to the dominions of the Goths after the fall of the Roman empire; but the inhabitants neither lapsed into the barbarism of their masters, nor submitted to the feudal system which they established. The effects of the conquest were battles, murders and crimes of which history has preserved a confused remembrance. The Goths were succeeded in the eighth century by the Arabs and Saracens, who remained but a short time in the island. It was reserved for the rising republic of Genoa to impose a cruel and tyrannical yoke on the people, which lasted, with many interruptions, during a period of eight centuries. In the same period the people experienced all the vicissitudes that result from resistance and submission; at one time asserting their independence, at another yielding to their oppressors. Rome attempted the conquest of the island; the Pisans took it from their rivals during the eleventh century, but in the twelfth the latter gained it anew. In the course of the thirteenth century it was nearly taken by the Pisans, and during the fifteenth by Alphonso the Fifth, king of Arragon. Genoa ceded it in 1465, and took it back shortly afterwards from the Duke of Milan. Henry the Second assisted the Corsicans, and freed them from the Genoese; but six years after their deliverance, the island was restored to the republic by the treaty of Chateau-Cambresis. Promises of assist-

* M. Gosselin.

† Diodorus Siculus, Book V. sect. 13.

BOOK CXL.

ance were offered, but never fulfilled, and the inhabitants, almost reduced to despair, had recourse to revolt in 1564. Men were not wanting, who could organise and direct insurgents,—none were found capable of liberating their country. Tranquillity was restored each time Genoa promised to abolish the grievances, but when she resumed her authority, the promises were broken. While the different parties against the Genoese were divided on the choice of their leader, a German baron, Theodore Von Neuhof, landed in the island, offered his services to the insurgents, and gained so great an ascendancy over them, that he was proclaimed king. Without talent as a general, without energy as a monarch, he was unable to disperse the Genoese, or unite the factions which enfeebled his ephemeral kingdom. Twice he sought in foreign countries resources and supplies, which he might have found at home, and during his absence, an auxiliary army furnished to Genoa by France, put an end to the revolt. The French had hardly left the island before a new insurrection broke out, and king Theodore returned in 1741. Eight years afterwards the French conquered Corsica, and restored it to the Genoese, but the latter found a formidable enemy in Pascal Paoli. It was not enough that he repelled the oppressors, he became the liberator and lawgiver of his country. Deputies were sent by him to the principal courts of Europe, announcing that the Corsicans, no longer submitting to the treachery of Genoa, had proclaimed their independence. The republic of Genoa ceded in 1768, the sovereignty of the island to France. The people did not confound in their hatred the Genoese and the French, many submitted voluntarily, and the independent party was annihilated after a single campaign. The efforts and genius of Paoli were employed in vain, he left his country, and found an asylum in England. An unforeseen event called him from his retirement;—the French revolution had commenced, he repaired again to the island, and with the assistance of the English repelled the French. Paoli intended to found a republic, when the king of Britain was proclaimed sovereign of Corsica; but the inhabitants were mistrustful of the English, and an easy victory freed them from British supremacy.

Pascal Paoli.

Corsica ceded to France.

BOOK CXLI.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Physical Geography of France.

The different sciences of which the object is to extend our knowledge of nature, have thrown additional light on geography. Physical geography, a new department of science, possessing many attractions, has thus been created. In its application to France, it indicates the connexion of the different mountainous chains, the rivers that rise from them, the fertility or barrenness of the soil, the different windings on the coasts, the fish that are found in the seas and rivers, the animals indigenous to the mountains and plains. The science of geology tends to illustrate physical geography; descending into the depths of the earth, it reveals the nature of the strata beneath the surface, and the mineral riches contained in them. It may be necessary, therefore, to advert to some elementary principles of geology, principles which have never been contested, and to describe in a few words the formation of the different deposits within the limits of France, and the volcanic convulsions of which it has been the théatre.

The northern declivities of the Pyrenees, and the western of the Alps, are the southern and eastern boundaries of the kingdom. It is obvious that other mountains besides those last mentioned, form part of the high line, which divides Europe into two portions. The Pyrenees unite with the Cevennes, the Cevennes with the Vosges, the latter meet Jura on the south, and form the Ardennes on the north. In the present state of geographical science, to determine the points of junction or separation between different mountains,

BOOK CXLI.

is to determine the nature and formation of the rocks which compose them; and as the same remark is equally applicable to their boundaries and ramifications, the study of mineralogy becomes indispensably necessary to all those who do not confine their inquiries to the systems of ancient geographers, or to political and arbitrary divisions ever liable to change.

Franco-Celtic Group.

Ceveno-Vosgian chain.

According to this method, the mountains in the interior of France may be designated the *Franco-Celtic group*. It belongs to the vast Alpine range, and consists of two principal chains, the *Ceveno-Vosgian* and the *Armorican*. The first, separated from the Pyrenees by the valley of Languedoc, is formed on the south by the Black Mountains, the Espinouse, the Garriguen and the Cevennes proper. One branch or the Levezon stretches towards the south-west from Mount Lozere in the Cevennes; while the mountains of Aubrac extend towards the north-west. In the same direction, the heights of Margeride unite with the Cevennes at Cantal and Mount-Dor,* of which the summit or the Puy de Saucy is the highest point in central France. A long but not a very high chain passes from these two branches to the Loire; the loftiest points are Mount Olouze, Mount Jurgean and the heights of Gatine. A much shorter chain, situated between Mounts Lozere and Mezen, formed by the Forez heights and those of La Made, stretches northwards to the banks of the Loire. The Mezen, the Pilat,† the mountains of Chorollais, and the Cote d'Or are united with the Moresot and Tasselot by the ridge of Langres and the Faucilles, or the extension of the Cevennes and the Vosges. The heights of Morvan bend towards the north-west near the banks of the Ouche, and terminate in low hills at the

* Mont-Dor, which Sidonius Apollinaris calls Mons-Duranius, is generally written Mont-d'Or, as if its Latin name had been *Mons Aureus*. Ramond proposed to call it Mont-Dore, after the name of the river which rises from it; but as the same river is called the Dordogne beyond its junction with the Dogne, we have adopted the name in the text, which may be considered a translation of *Mons-Duranius*.

† So called from the Latin word *Pilcatus*, because its summit is often covered with clouds, as if with a cap.

sources of the Vernisson. The Vosges are only separated on the south-east from the chain of Jura by a valley now watered by the canal of Monsieur, they extend on the north to the banks of the Rhine. Branches of the same heights incline towards the north-west near the sources of the Moselle, and form different ridges, covered with the thick woods of the Ardennes. They are divided anew into two other branches near the sources of the Oise, the one terminates in the Pas de Calais, and the other near the coasts of the Channel. It appears from their geological composition and other causes which shall be afterwards urged, that they form part of a single chain.

Armorican chain.

The Armorican range consists of four divisions, which extend in different directions. It commences on the western coasts of ancient Brittany, where it divides itself into two branches known by the names of the Arree and the Black Mountains, the former are situated on the north of the Aulne, and the others on the south of the same river. The Menez heights extend eastwards, and a series of hills beginning near the sources of the Vilaine, run towards the south, and, but for the course of the Loire, might join a part of the preceding chain. The northern extremity of one branch forms Cape Hogue; another on the east stretches to the heights of Beauce, which are separated by the valley of the Vernisson from the mountains of Morvan. Thus it might almost be concluded that the two chains form a single group.

Basins and rivers.

France has been divided into fifteen basins, viz. four principal basins, one German, two Belgian, and eight connected with the coasts. The basin of the Garonne is formed by the Pyrenees on the south, the Cevennes on the east, the Cantal, Mounts Odouze, Jargean and Beron on the north. The Gironde discharges all its waters into the ocean. The Garonne, of which the name is a translation of the Latin word *Garumna* or *Varumna*, has its source in the valley of Aran in the Pyrenees. The Gers and the Save, which descend from the same mountains, are the only feeders of any consequence on its left bank; but on the right, it receives the Ariege, the *Aurigera* of the ancients, the *Pactolus* of

Garonne.

BOOK CXLI.

Gaul,* the Tarn, enlarged by the Aveyron, the Lot by the Truyere and the Celle, and lastly, the Dordogne, which rising from Mount-Dor, is fed by the waters of the Cere, the Vezere and the Isle. The Garonne receives the name of the Gironde after its junction with the Dordogne. The tide is perceptible in the river at thirty leagues from the embouchure; the length of the course may be about two hundred and fifty miles. Rafts and timber are floated down the streams from a place about two leagues above the small town of Saint Beat, and it becomes navigable at Cazeres in the department of the Upper Garonne. A number of islands and sand banks below Ambes, where it joins the Dordogne, render the navigation dangerous. The banks are enclosed by heaths or downs at no great distance from its mouth, and the breadth of the river exceeds seven miles, but it becomes gradually narrower, and enters the ocean by a passage little more than two miles in width.

Rhone.

The basin of the Rhone, bounded on the north by Jura, on the west by Mounts Pilat, Mezen, Saone and the Cevennes, and on the east by several mountains which may be considered the counterforts of the Alps, extends on the north to the Vosges; its waters are discharged on the south into the Mediterranean. The Rhone, the *Rhodanus* of the ancients, rises below the glaciers of Mount Furca, and enters France at some leagues to the east of St. Dizier. It is one of the most rapid rivers in Europe, the declivity has been estimated at thirty-three feet on each league. The principal feeders on the right bank are the Ain, the Saone, the Ardeche and the Gard; it receives on the left the Isere, the Drome, the Aigues and the Durance, which rises at the base of Mount Genevre. The Rhone begins to be navigable at Seyssel on the boundaries between Savoy and the department of the Ain. The length of its course is equal to a hundred and eighty leagues, and of these a hundred and twenty are included between the frontiers of

* The gold borne down by the waters of the Ariege, is at present found in too inconsiderable quantities to be worked with profit.

France and the Mediterranean. After it passes Beaucaire, it becomes less rapid; it flows slowly into the sea, and divides itself into four branches, in which several banks render the passage difficult.

Loire.

The length of the basin watered by the Loire is still greater; it is bounded on the east by the mountains of Charolais, and part of the Cevennes, on the south by the mountains of Margeride, Cantal and Mount Dor, on the south-west by the heights of Gatine, and on the north by the hills, which form the ridge of Beauce, and unite with the Armorican chain. The Loire rises from mount Gerbier-le-Joux, at some leagues from Mezen. It runs first northwards, being separated from the Allier by the Forez heights and those of La Made, it then bends to the north-west, and continues in that direction until it reaches the neighbourhood of Orleans; beyond the last place, it flows westwards, and enters the ocean after a course of two hundred and twenty leagues. The mean depth of its waters may be more than seven, but less than ten feet, and the declivity of the course, about twenty-three feet on each league. Trees or rafts are not floated on its streams, above the village of Retournac, at five leagues from Beauzac in the department of the upper Loire; it becomes navigable a short way above Roanne in the department of the Loire. The Mayenne, swollen by the streams of the Jarthe and Loire, enters it on the right, but, it receives no other important river from the same side, as it is not confined by lofty hills. Several large rivers on the left rise from the chain of mountains, in which are situated the highest summits in central France; these rivers are the Allier, the Cher, the Vienne and others which fall into the Loire. The alluvial deposits conveyed by it, obstruct the embouchure, and form sand banks which are daily increasing; thus in some places, the depth which was formerly twenty feet at low tide, does not at present exceed seven or eight.

Seine.

The sinuous course of the Seine or the ancient *Sequana* passes along a basin formed by the extension of the Armorican chain, which on the south separates it from the Loire, and joins the mountains of Morvan; it is enclosed on the east by mounts Moresot and Tasselot, the ridge of Langres

BOOK CXLI.

and the heights that separate the Meuse from the Aisne; it is bounded on the north by the Faucilles and the Ardennes, which unite with the chalky hills that follow the river to its embouchure. The Seine rises between Chanceaux and Saint Seine, at the foot of a hill connected with those of Langres. It does not become navigable until it reaches the village of Marcilly below its junction with the Aube. On the right bank, it receives the Marne at Charenton near Paris, and the Oise near Conflans-Saint-Honorine above Poissy. The feeders that enter it from the left are the Yonne at Montereau and the Eure near Pont de l'Arche. The length of its course may be about a hundred and sixty leagues. When the tide is full, the breadth of its embouchure gives it a very majestic appearance, but at low tide, it looks like a canal flowing in the middle of an oozy bed. It is not easy to imagine the changes which take place during the equinox, and more particularly at the time of the syzigies; the billows enter the mouth of the Seine by narrow passages, rise to a considerable height, are precipitated into the bed of the river, and impede the course of the streams. The cry of the *Barre* then becomes a signal of alarm, and the houses on the banks have been more than once destroyed. The same sort of phenomenon has been observed at the embouchure of the Loire.

Germanic Basin.

Having shortly described the four principal rivers in France, it remains for us to cross the Vosges and to examine the Germanic basin or the basin of the Rhine: Formed by the sides of the black forest and the Vosges, it extends from Huningue below the declivities of Jura to to those of mount Tonnere. The course of the Ill, the largest feeder it receives, may be equal to thirty-six leagues; it rises near the burgh of Wenckell in the department of the Upper Rhine, and throws itself into the river at the distance of two leagues above Strasburg. The Moselle is a feeder of the Rhine, and for that reason its basin, although a separate one, may be considered as forming a part of the other.

Meuse.

On the west of the last, are the two Belgian basins; the one is watered by the Meuse, a considerable river that traverses only a small part of France. It rises from the

heights of Langres, a short way above the village of Meuse. The long and narrow basin of the river is bounded by the Ardennes, and the heights of the Moselle. It begins to be navigable at Verdun, and continues so to the frontiers of the kingdom.

Scheldt.

The second Belgian basin or that of the Scheldt, is formed by two ranges of hills; the one commands the course of the Meuse on the north-west, and the other extends towards Calais. The country is watered by the Scheldt, which holds no inconsiderable rank among rivers, both because it receives several navigable feeders, and because it discharges itself into the North Sea.* It takes its source near Castalet in the department of the Aisne, and becomes navigable below Condé, at no great distance from the confines of France.

Somme.

Of the remaining eight basins, five discharge their waters either into the Channel or the Ocean. The basin of the Somme is enclosed by the chain of hills that were last mentioned, and by another which extends towards Cape Heve; the principal current takes its source at Font-Somme in the department of the Aisne, it may perhaps be considered a river, to which the Miramont, the Avre and the Celle are tributary. It is navigable from Amiens to Saint Valery, where it throws itself into the Channel after a course of forty leagues.

Orne.

The Orne receives the Noireau, which is navigable, the Aize, the Odon and other small rivers; it rises near Seez, in the granite heights on the north of Alencon; the basin is bounded by the northern branch of the same heights that stretch towards Cape Hogue. The course of the Orne may be about thirty leagues, it discharges itself into the Channel.

Rance.

The contiguous basin may be called the Rance from the name of the principal river, which, however, is not more than eighteen leagues in length. It is formed by the chain which serves as a limit to the preceding basin, and which passes northwards of Brest, to the heights of Menez and Arree.

Vilaine.

Mounts Menez and a range of hills, extending from the

* See on the importance of rivers, the article *Rivieres* in the fifth volume of Physical Geography in the Encyclopedie Methodique, by M. Huot.

BOOK CXLI.

north to the neighbourhood of the Loire, bounds the basin of the Vilaine, a small river which rises near Juvigné, and is rendered navigable by sluices at the village of Cessan; afterwards enlarged by the Meu, the Seiche and the Don, it reaches the ocean after a course of forty-five leagues.

Charente. The Charente, a sinuous river, about eighty-five leagues long, rises near the village of Cherronac in the department of the Upper Vienne. The Ne, the Seugne and the Boutonne are the principal feeders; it is navigable at Montignac, a few leagues above Angouleme, and throws itself into the ocean, opposite the isle of Oleron. The basin is bounded by a chain that descends from the heights of Gatine, and by a range of hills, which separate it from the basin of the Charante.

Adour. The basin of the Adour is limited on the south by the Pyrenees, and by a number of hills that extend from these mountains to the sandy plains of the Gironde. The river issues from the declivities in the Pic du Midi, and forms a cataract of a hundred feet in height, a short way above Bagneres. The length of the course may be about seventy leagues; it quits the valleys of the Pyrenees, and receives the Midouze, the Luy, the Gave de Pau, the Gave d'Oleron, the Bidouze and other streams. The Adour cannot be considered either a useful or important river; its course is very rapid, and the inundations occasioned by the melting of the snows, desolate the fields in the neighbourhood of the banks. It begins to be navigable at Saint-Severe, and throws itself into the Gulf of Gascogny at Bayonne.

Aude. The Aude rises from the marshes of the same name in the eastern Pyrenees about a league from Mount Lewis; the Orbieux or the principal feeder is not navigable. The length of the Adour's course may be about fifty leagues; boats, however, are seldom seen on it, until it joins the canal at Narbonne. The basin of the river is enclosed by Mounts Espinouze, the Black Mountains and the extreme branches of the Pyrenees.

Argens. The basin limited by Mounts Maures, Esterel and their ramifications, is watered by several rivers, of which the Argens or the most important is formed by the streams that unite at Chateau-Vert. The waters of the Artuby fall into

the Argens, which enters the Mediterranean, after a course of twenty-four leagues. It is not navigable, and although it flows between high and rocky banks, it often leaves its bed, and forms pestilential marshes. The Herault traverses the eastern part of the same basin from the Cevennes to the sea, a distance of twenty-eight leagues.

France is watered by twelve great rivers, by a hundred and eight that are navigable, and by more than five thousand streams and rivulets. But in order to complete the hydrographical account of the same country, it is necessary to notice the lakes and marshes. Of the former, one only need be mentioned; it is the Lake of Grand-Lieu in the department of Nantes; enlarged by the waters of the Boulogne, the Ognon, and other small rivers, it discharges itself by the Achenau into the Loire. It may be about two leagues and a half in length, and nearly two in breadth. The large marshes in France are situated in the maritime departments on the south-west and south-east. The marsh of Carcans in the department of the Gironde may be about two leagues long by one and a half broad; it communicates with another, the Canau, which is not much smaller. The Biscarosse in the Landes may be nearly of the same dimensions as the first; it as well as others of a smaller size are separated from the sea by downs. The boundary on the coast of the Mediterranean, between the departments of the Eastern Pyrenees and the Aude, divides the Leucate, a marsh about three leagues long, into two almost equal parts. The Sigean, nearly four leagues in length, is also situated in the same department. The marsh of Thau in the department of the Herault, is almost as long as the last, it exhibits two phenomena not unworthy of notice; first, it is salt, although fed by many fresh water springs; secondly, a sort of subterranean water spout rises several feet above the surface near the northern extremity, and forms by its fall a circular pool. It communicates on the north-east by means of a natural channel with the marshes of Maguelonne, Perols and Mauguio, thus forming a length of more than thirty miles. The marsh of Bere in the Bouches du Rhone, may be considered a gulf, it enters the sea by the canals of Martigues and the Tour de Bouc. It is about fifteen leagues

BOOK CXLI.

in circumference, and a great quantity of salt is deposited in its calm and still waters. Several artificial marshes or pools, not inferior in size to natural lakes, are situated in the interior of France, among others, the Villers in the department of the Cher, and the Indre in the department of the Meurthe; the first is about six leagues in circumference, and the second, four. The Saille, a feeder of the Moselle, issues from the last.

Capes.

Two large promontories are situated on the French coasts; the Hague or the Hogue at the extremity of a department of the same name protrudes into the channel, the Raz forms the most western point in the department of Finistere. The waves are broken into foam at the base of the last cape, and the view from its summit extends to a great distance along the ocean.

Gulfs and bays.

The same coasts are indented by large and deep gulfs; that of St. Malo in the Channel, stretches beyond the bay of Saint Brieuc on the left, and forms at its extremity the bay of Cancale, famous for its oysters. The Brest anchorage on the western coast of Finistere might be more correctly called a bay, of which the depth at low tide is not less than ten or twelve fathoms, and the circumference about eight leagues; it communicates with the ocean by the strait of Goulet. The bay of Douarnenez on the south is still larger; its entrance is formed by Cape Chevre and Cape Raz. Another, the Morbihan, which gives its name to a department, is about eight leagues in circumference. The bay of Bourganeuf, although larger, but not so deep as the last, extends almost to the embouchure of the Loire. The gulf of Gascogny on the ocean is enclosed by the coasts of France and Spain; at one extremity it receives the small river of the Nivelle. The most important gulf on the Mediterranean, is the gulf of Lions, incorrectly written Lyons, an error which has led some geographers to suppose that it was called after the town of the same name, from which, however, it is more than fifty-five leagues distant in a direct line. During the middle ages, it was styled the sea or gulf of the Lion, because, from the frequency of tempests, it was formidable to mariners. It is known that Saint-Lewis, after having embarked at Aigues Mortes,

was detained in the gulf by a storm which lasted three days.* It is bounded by the coasts of five departments; the Eastern Pyrenees, the Aude, the Herault, the Gard and the Bouches du Rhone. Four bays are formed by the coasts in the department of the Var; namely, the bays of Cavaleire, Grimaud, Napoule and Juan.

Islands.

It is unnecessary to mention all the islands near the coasts of France; Jersey and Guernsey are more important than any others in the channel, but as they are under the protection of England, they shall be described in the account of that country. The isle of Ouessant on the coasts of the ocean is surrounded by other smaller islands of the same name, and lined with rocks, which render the approach dangerous. It may be equal to two square leagues in superficial extent; the soil is by no means unfruitful. Groaix, a more productive island, is chiefly inhabited by fishermen. Belle-Isle, about four leagues in length, and two in breadth, yields rich pasturage. Mourmoutiers, equal to four square leagues in extent, is peopled by industrious inhabitants. Yeu is formed by a granite rock, covered with a light stratum of vegetable mould; the surface occupies the space of nearly six square leagues. The isle of Re, about five leagues long, and fifteen in circumference, is bounded by rocks on the north and the west. The land is ill provided with wood, and unfruitful in corn; the wealth of the inhabitants consists chiefly in the produce of their vineyards. Oleron, an island of considerable importance, is about six leagues long, and two broad; its salt marshes are very valuable. Camargue, an island on the Mediterranean, is formed by the alluvial deposits brought down by the Rhone; with the exception of a large marsh, the soil affords excellent pasturage. The Hyeres, of which the principal islands are Porquerolles, Port-Croz, Bagneaux and Titan, stretch to the distance of seven leagues from east to west; they are fruitful in oranges and in different aromatic plants. The Lerins or the islands of St. Marguerite and

* We may mention the testimony of William of Nangis, a monk of the thirteenth century, and a biographer of St. Lewis. "Mare Leonis nuncupatur, quod semper est asperum, fluctuosum et crudele." See also Memoires de l'Academie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres, tom. xii. p. 210.

BOOK CXLI.

St. Honorat are encompassed with quicksands, and almost uninhabited. Corsica is situated on the south-east of the Lerins; from its importance it may be necessary to enter into some details concerning it.

Corsica.

The island is partly covered with mountains, forming a group which a French geographer has denominated the Sardo-Corsican,* because it is the continuation of a range in Sardinia. The group consists of the chain of Caona on the south, the mountains of Cagnone in the centre, the Frontogna heights on the north-west, and the Titime on the north. Different counterforts or branches connected with these chains, enclose numerous valleys or small basins. The seven of most consequence are those watered by the Tavignano and the Golo on the east, and the valleys of the Valinco, the Taravo, the Gravone, the Liamone and the Fango, which descend towards the western declivities of the island. None of these rivers are navigable. Several marshes are situated on the eastern coast, the largest or the Biguglia is nearly eight miles in length. The chain of Titime terminates at Cape Corsica on the north, the most important of any in the island. The mountains that descend on the western side, enclose many bays and several gulfs, among others, the gulfs of Valinco, Ajaccio, Porto and St. Florent. Other islands are situated near Corsica, but all of them are very small.

Geology. Preliminary remarks.

Before we proceed to examine the soil in the different parts of France, it may not be out of place to make some remarks relative to the geology of the country. Granite rocks or such as are anterior to the appearance of organic matter, are seen on the declivities of the Pyrenees and the Alps, but the granite in the former is less ancient than the granite in the second. Granite masses support volcanic summits in the Cevennes proper, and particularly in Cantal and Mount Dor. The granite in the Ceveno-Vosgian group disappears in the neighbourhood of Avalon, and is seen anew at the two extremities of the Vosges, in other words, at the sources of the Moselle, and in the vicinity of the Ardennes. The same rocks prevail in the Armorican range,

* See Tableau des Montagnes by M. Brouguere.

forming the crests of the small basins, watered by the feeders of the Loire, and covering almost all the surface in the departments of the Lower Loire, Morbihan, Finistere, the Cotes-du-Nord, the Ile-et-Vilaine and the Manche.

Ancient sandstone.

From the remains of granite rocks, triturated and united by the action of water, are formed the masses of ancient sandstone which extend near the frontiers of the kingdom. But at the time that their molecules were cemented, continents existed, for in their inclined strata are found vegetable remains. Extensive deposits of the same rocks are situated at the base of the Cevennes, on the banks of the Tarn in the neighbourhood of St. Etienne, near Brives, in the territory of Bourbon-Archambault, on the banks of the Cher and the Auron. The same rocks bound the Vosges on the west and south, they form their summits from the sources of the Sarre to the base of Mount Tonnere, and appear again on the banks of the Moselle in the vicinity of Sierck.

Saline deposits.

The ancient ocean has left traces of its existence in every country on the earth; as its waters became gradually lower, calcareous strata or beds of sea salt, were deposited in the declivities of the heights which have been already indicated, and in basins of which the limits are still apparent.

Calcareous rocks on Jura.

The whole chain of Jura may be considered the highest region of these deposits, which are supported on the south by the base of the Lower Alps, the Cevennes and the Pyrenees, and on the east by the base of the High Alps, and form on the right of the Saone, the mountains of the Charollais, the Cote d'Or and the heights of Langres. The same deposits become lower towards the Mediterranean, and their declivities extend in the direction of the channel, occupying a zone, which may be traced from the banks of the Tarn to Valogne and the neighbourhood of Cherburg; they form the ridge of the Ardennes, terminate at the sources of the Serre, and re-appear in the vicinity of Boulogne-sur-Mer.

Chalk deposits.

But a second series of sediments is found on these lands, exhibiting in the south of Angouleme and Perigueux, and

BOOK CXLI.

at the distance of some leagues to the north of the Garonne, the calcareous substances which belong to the chalk formation. It might be said that they have been accumulated in the depths of vast Caspian seas, of which the remains on the banks of the Dordogne, the Ille, and the Charente, extend and are lost in the ocean, where they form the island of Oleron. Another deposit, much greater than the last, occupies an immense basin, which, in its irregular windings, stretches into England, terminating on the west towards a branch of the hills, that diverges from the Armorican chain to the Loire, where it forms the regular schistus of Angers; the same deposit extends on the south towards the heights of Gatines, the ridge of Issoudun, and the hills near Bourges, on the east towards those of Auxerre, and the heights of Langres and the Ardennes, on the north beyond the Baltic.

Ancient reptiles.

The animals that existed in these Caspian seas, differed wholly from any that now frequent the ocean. Among those that the naturalist considers the most remarkable, are large reptiles, which may be compared to monsters engendered in the imagination, exhibiting the singular spectacle of a head like a dolphin's with the teeth of a crocodile, placed at the extremity of a long neck consisting of eighty vertebræ, and attached to the body of a lizard. The remains of the marine reptiles, called *Ichtyosauri*, have been found in the blue marl near Honfleur, and other animals, the *Plesiosauri*, not unlike lizards, and about nine feet in length, have been collected near Boulogne and Auxonne. A third animal, to which a French naturlist has given the name of *Teleosaurus Cadomensis*,* resembles in some respects the crocodile; it is found in the quarries near Caen.

Higher deposits.

At a period subsequent to the formation of the chalky basins, which cover a great part of Champagne, Normandy, Touraine, Picardy, and Artois, the traces of smaller seas have been left in France. These traces may be discovered wherever there are beds of coarse limestone, such as the kind used for building in the neighbourhood of Paris, or

* M. Geoffroy de St. Hilaire.

wherever there are deposits similar to the strata beneath the same rocks. The smallest of these Caspian seas, if they may be so called, covered the country now watered by the Rhone in the lower part of its course; it may be traced into the departments of Herault, Gard, Vaucluse and Bouches du Rhone. Another and a somewhat larger sea was situated on the north of the former, and bounded by the declivities of Jura, those on Cote d'Or, and the heights of Charolais. The basin which it formed, reaches from the north of Dijon to the south of Valence. A third of still greater dimensions, covered almost all the surface in the departments of Tarn, Upper Garonne, Gers, Landes, Gironde, and lastly, Lot-et-Garonne. But the largest of them all extended over the Loiret, the Seine-et-Oise, the Oise, and partly over the departments of Aisne, Seine-et-Cher, Indre-et-Loire, and Indre. The basins of these Caspians were not drained at the same epoch. While the one on the north, the last that has been mentioned, is formed by marine calcareous strata, in which the organic remains belong to animals wholly different from any that now frequent our seas,; in the basin through which the Garonne flows, are found many shell-fish similar to others that still exist. It may be concluded from the gypsum rocks, which appear to have been formed in the depths of fresh water, that lakes succeeded the seas in the two basins round Paris and Avignon.

Ancient quadrupeds

Graminivorous animals frequented the banks of these lakes, but they were part of a creation very different from the one which now inhabits the surface of the earth. Their bones have been collected, examined and compared by a celebrated naturlist,* and with the aid of a science, which was brought by the same person to a high degree of perfection, their forms have been discovered. It was in the strata of Montmartre, Belleville and Montmorency, in the quarries of Aix, in the calcareous marl near Orleans, and on the Rhenish limits of France, that the bones of these ancient animals were found. From their particular conformation and the marked characters which distinguish them from

* M. Cuvier. See Recherches sur les Ossemens Fossiles, 5 vols. 4to. 1823.

BOOK CXLI.

every living being, names have been assigned them, which, together with their antiquity, indicate the forms of their jawbones and teeth. Thus the *palæotheria* (ancient animals) have been divided into seven sorts, of which the largest may be equal in size to a horse, and the smallest, somewhat larger than a hare. The only animals to which they bear any resemblance in shape, are the tapirs that exist at present in the new world. The *anoplotheria* (defenceless animals) are divided into six species, the largest are three feet high by five long, and the smallest, not less than a rat. The remains of the *lophiodontes** are chiefly found in calcareous marl; they resemble tapirs in many respects, the difference consisting principally in their greater or smaller size.

Ridge of Auvergne.

When the marine calcareous masses in the departments round Paris were covered with fresh water, there must have been large lakes in the highest part of France, on the mountains in the departments of Puy de Dome, Cantal, Lozere and Ardeche; for no marine calcareous rocks can be observed in that lofty country, and the deposits left by the lakes, are still found on the granite. The waters appear to have passed from their basins in a northern direction, and by their rupture to have augmented other deposits, which were forming in the great northern basin.† In the same deposits are contained a great many organic remains, some of the same sort as those on Montmartre, others of hippopotami and of the *anthracotherion*, an animal in some respects similar to the hippopotamos. In addition to these might be mentioned the remains of birds, different from any that now exist, and what is a new fact in the science, gallinaceous eggs perfectly entire. Lava and basalt rest above these fresh water basins; although the volcanoes from which they were vomited, are now extinguished, their height and their craters still excite admiration. While they were emitting flames, animals existed in that part of France, which at present are only found in the warmest climates.

* From lophos, a crest or hill, and odon, a tooth.

† See the introduction to the work entitled Recherches sur les Ossemens Fossiles du department du Puy-de-Dome, by M.M. Croizet and Jobert, 4to. 1828.

Among others, the rhinoceros, elephants, hyenas, lions and stags of an immense size, *mastodontes* or large quadrupeds that have disappeared from the surface of the earth, but of which the remains are still collected in the new world. The most of these animals succeeded those which have been described, and others that are found in marl and gypsum; in Auvergne, however, their remains are contained in alluvial lands that cover ancient streams of lava and basalt, from which it may be easy to prove the existence of volcanoes at different periods in that part of the country. It must not be imagined that these large animals, which now inhabit Africa and Asia, were confined to the banks of the Allier. On the alluvial lands that cover the caverns of Montpelier, are found tigers, lions, hyenas, panthers and hippopotami. The transition lands in the vallies throughout France contain the remains of the same quadrupeds, and very many have been collected in the country round Paris. It is certain, therefore, that the climate of France, and, in general, of all the temperate regions, was at the epoch in which these animals existed, much warmer than in the present day.

Fossil animals.

The greatest part of Corsica belongs to the granite formation. Calcareous rocks similar to those on the Alps and Jura are observed in two different parts of the island, on the eastern coast towards the north of Porto Vecchio, and on the northern near the gulf of St. Florent. More recent calcareous rocks and calcareous sandstone, left by the ocean, the last time it covered the continent, can only be seen in the southern part of the island, in the neighbourhood of Bonifacio.

Lands in Corsica.

The account that has been given of the different lands in France, in the order of their formation, may prepare the reader to judge more readily of the mineral riches in the same country. From the variety of these lands, some notion may be inferred of the substances which are contained in them.

Substances used in the arts.

We may commence with the rocks that are used in the arts, some of which serve to decorate edifices and monuments. In the department of the High

Granite and porphyry.

BOOK CXLI.

Alps are found gray, green, and rose coloured granite, and sycnites of various colours, long confounded with granite, but more valuable from the fine polish of which they are susceptible. Besides these substances, there are brown and fine green porphyry, variolites with white and brown or black stains on a green or violet ground, grey, green or brown serpentine, and many jaspers of different shades. The same rocks are obtained in Corsica in greater varieties. Porphyry abounds in the Vosges, and granite is by no means uncommon in other departments, such as the Lower Loire, the Manche and the Sarthe. It was employed in paving the streets of different towns, but for some years past, the lava of Auvergne has been substituted in Paris for the same purpose.

Marble.

Frenchmen envied long the marble quarries of the Italians, ignorant that others in their own country, might rival the most renowned in Italy. At present, different sorts of marble are worked in forty departments; the best kinds are situated in the Upper and Lower Pyrenees, the Upper Garonne and the Eastern Pyrenees, particularly the schistous marble in Campan, which is of a red, green and delicate rose colour, it was first brought into repute by Lewis the Fourteenth, who used it in decorating the castles of Trianon aud Versailles. It might be tedious to enumerate all the different kinds of marble in France; several sorts are well adapted for statues, that of Sarancolin is very valuable. Those who have seen the eight pillars that support the triumphal arch on the place Carrousel, may form a correct notion of the red and white marbles in the department of Aude. The marbles in Arriege are of a dark blue or violet colour; the two sorts in the Bouches du Rhone have been incorrectly called Aleppo and Memphis marbles. Two different kinds in the department of Herault, the one of a white, and the other of a red colour, have served to adorn several edifices in the capital. Statuary, cipolin and other sorts are obtained in Corsica, and the varieties in the departments of Isere and Ardeche are not less numerous. The marbles in Jura and Lot are worked in these two departments; quarries of a

finely grained and white colour are situated in the neighbourhood of Vienne. It would be almost endless to mention the departments in which the same substance is found; suffice it to say that it is obtained in Puy de Dome, Lower Charente, Saone and Loire, Cote-d'Or and Aube, Maine-et-Loire, Sarthe and Pas de Calais.

Slatestones for building

Other rocks, less ornamental but more useful than marble are worked in different parts of France. Many workmen are employed in the extensive slate quarries at the base of the Pyrenees, in Maine-et-Loire, Meuse and Ardennes. Limestone, admirably adapted for building, is worked in the departments of Dordogne, Herault, Loire, Cote d'Or, Yonne, Meuse, Moselle, Oise and Seine. Other sorts, not inferior to the last, are common in Seine-et-Marne, Seine-et-Oise, the departments of Calvados and Manche. Excellent lithographic stones are exported from the neighbourhood of Mulhouse, Belay, Dijon and Châteauroux.

Argil, porcelain.

The ancient provinces of Burgundy, Champagne, Flanders and the Isle of France abound in argil, which the inhabitants convert into bricks and tiles. The decomposed feldspath contained in the granite rocks near Limoges and St. Yrieux, furnishes kaolin, a very useful substance in the manufacturing of china. Pipe clay, not inferior to any other in the continent, has been long worked at Forge-les-Eaux in the department of Lower Seine; another sort near Elbeuf is much used in claying sugar. The argil in the neighbourhood of Beauvais and Montereau is changed into the finest porcelain. The departments of Yonne, Cher and Lower Charente abound in flint; and the small town of La Ferte-sous-Jouare exports mill-stones of the same substance, into different countries, even into America. The soft chalk in the departments of Marne, Seine, Seine and Oise, is fashioned into different shapes, and sold as an article of commerce; lastly, the gypsum obtained in the neighbourhood of Paris, furnishes the plaster so much used in the capital.

Flint, chalk

An increase has of late years been perceptible in the products that form the mineral riches of France; they may still be greatly augmented. The following is a list of the

BOOK CXLI.

in the temperate zone, not so much from the latitude, as from the moderate elevation of the soil; still, however, different parts of it are exposed to changes of temperature, that exhibit their influence on vegetation. The humid vapours that rise from the seas, which bound France on the west, and the mountainous chains that limit on the east and the south, often occasion sudden modifications in the atmosphere.

Winds.

The winds, according to the different directions from which they proceed, are accompanied with hail, rain and drought in the different basins. As the north wind in the valley of Durance, does not pass over any great heights, it tempers the heat of the climate, and is favourable to the growth of plants; but the same wind is often attended with destructive effects on the basins of the Seine and the Loire. While the valley of the Durance is desolated by the east wind, that traverses the frozen summits of the Alps, it is the sign and harbinger of fair weather in the country watered by the Seine. The south winds that issue from the burning deserts of Africa spread desolation on the coasts of the Mediterranean; cooled in their passage over the snowy summits of the Pyrenees, they are frequently accompanied with hail in the basin of the Garonne. The crops in the departments of Var and Bouches du Rhone are often laid waste by the *mistral*, a south-east wind known by the name of *galerne* near the mouth of the Loire; in Brittany, on the contrary, it as well as the south-west wind are often forerunners of rain. Lastly, the north-east wind is accompanied with cold and humid weather in the departments of Vosges and Ardennes.

Rain.

France is divided into two great regions by the forty-sixth parallel, and there is a sensible difference in the mean number of rainy days on the north and south of the same line, which passes along the northern declivities in the group of Mont-Dor. On the south the mean number is equal to 134 rainy days, and at the latitude of Paris, to 105. From the observations made in order to ascertain the mean quantity of rain that falls in different parts of France, the following results have been derived.

Departments.	Inches.	Lines.
Herault—Montpellier,	28	6
Isere,	32	0
Rhone—Lyons,	29	2 .20
Upper Vienne,	25	0
Ille-et-Villaine,	21	0
Orne,	20	4
Eure,	20	5
Siene—Paris,	19	6 .94
Nord—Lille,	27	0
Moselle—Metz,	24	8 .70
Upper Rhine (plains,)	28	1
(mountains,)	30	0

Temperature.

It is in vain in the present imperfect state of meteorology to attempt an explanation of the atmospheric phenomena, connected with climate; it may be sufficient to quote the results of observations concerning the mean temperature of different places in France.

	During summer.	During winter.
Clermont,	18.0 degrees.*	1.4
Dunkirk,	17.8	3.7
Paris,	18.1	3.7
Saint Malo,	18.9	5.6
Nantes,	20.3	4.7
Bourdeaux,	21.6	5.6
Marseilles,	22.5	7.5
Montpelier,	24.3	6.7
Toulon,	23.9	9.1
Nimes,	23.0	9.0
Agen,	28.7	2.5
Colmar,	21.0	8.7

Regions of different plants.

These different results prove that several local causes, such as the elevation of the soil, its exposure, the vicinity of seas and mountainous chains, have a considerable influence on the temperature and humidity of the atmosphere. The indications offered by different plants are less liable to error, and the climate of France may thus be better determined. The olive, maize and the vine form the limits of four natural regions into which the country is divided; these limits have been marked on different maps by straight and parallel lines, but in reality they are always curved or sin-

* The above results are still considered doubtful. The degrees are those of the centigrade thermometer; to convert them into degrees of Fahrenheit, it is necessary to multiply them by 9-5ths, and then to add the number 32.

BOOK CXLI.

uous; they follow the declivities and windings occasioned by the inequalities in the soil, and cut obliquely the degrees of latitude. The region of olives extends from the shores of the Mediterranean, from the eastern declivities of the Pyrenees, the southern of the Cevennes, and the western of the Lower Alps. It is bounded on the north by a line which, commencing at Bagneres-de-Luchon, extends in a straight direction to Dié in the department of Drome, and winds to Embrum in the department of the High Alps. The region of maize does not extend beyond a second line, which begins at the mouth of the Gironde, and, passing to the north of Nevers, stretches to the northern extremity of Alsace. The vine occupies both these regions, but does not succeed beyond a line at some leagues northwards from the mouth of the Loire; the same line produced towards the north-east, passes to the south of the sources of the Eure, follows the contours of the heights which bound the right bank of the Oise, stretches on the north of the Aisne and Verdun, and terminates on the north-east at the Rhine. Beyond this boundary the vine gives place to the apple, but the limits must not be considered rigorously exact. Thus, maize might be cultivated in the country round Metz, for it thrives in the gardens; a considerable quantity is indeed cultivated in Brittany on the southern declivities of the Aree heights.

Influence of the sea.

The neighbourhood of the sea, by rendering the climate milder, extends its influence to vegetation; the fig and the myrtle, which seem to require a warm climate, flourish in very different latitudes. The first needs no shelter, and yields excellent fruit in the neighbourhood of Havre and Cherburg, while the same plant not only requires a favourable exposure in the vicinity of Paris, but the fruits are later and never so good. The myrtle grows in the open air in Cotentin, at Brest, and Belle-Ile-en-Mer. At a hundred leagues farther south, but at a greater distance from the sea, it does not resist the severity of the climate without much care. The melon grows almost without culture on the coasts of Lower Normandy, and it is well known how much labour is bestowed on it in the neighbourhood of Paris, where,

however, some sorts are produced, that surpass the best in Italy.

Height of the soil.

Lastly, the height of the soil has a great influence on different plants; thus the chestnut tree flourishes from the mountains of Forez and Auvergne to the southern extremities of France, and grows naturally in several woods round Paris.*

Plants indigenous to France.

The only useful plants really natural to France, are the fig, the apple, the pear and the plum; it ought not perhaps to be forgotten that among the acotyledones, the truffles in the neighbourhood of Angouleme and Perigueux, so much prized by gourmands, are indigenous to the country. Many useful plants have been naturalized by culture; the cherry tree brought from Asia by Lucullus, was as well as the vine, first planted in France by the Romans. The Greek colonists on the coasts of the Mediterranean transported the olive, a plant indigenous to Mount Taurus, and the raspberry-bush from Mount Ida. Since the discovery of the New World, France has obtained the acriviola of Peru, the lycopersicon of Mexico, the potato of Virginia, and the maize which has been incorrectly called Turkey corn.† The humble parsley has been brought from Sardinia, and the cardoon from Barbary. The pomegranate was conveyed from Africa, and planted in the southern regions of France.

The gardens, the orchards and fields in the same country, are now adorned with the productions of Asia; the orange, the lemon and the white mulberry are indigenous to China; the black mulberry to Asia Minor, the apricot to Armenia, and the peach to Persia. Other plants first imported from Asia are now common, such as the almond, the walnut and the finest kind of melons. Lastly, the kidney bean, white endive and lettuce have passed from the burning climate of India to the temperate countries of western Europe. The gardener has been enabled

* See the Flore Francaise by M. de Candole, tom. ii.

† M. Moreau de Jones, corresponding member of the Academie des Sciences, read a paper in 1828 to the Academy, in which he proved the American origin maize.

BOOK CXLI.

by his art, to preserve, in France, the lilly of Palestine, the sunflower of Peru, the dahlia of Mexico, the balsamine of India, the reseda of Egypt, the angelica of Lapland, the tuberose of Ceylon, the tulip of Turkey, and the inodorous ranunculus, the only monument of Saint Lewis' pious expedition into Syria. The weeping willow, now common on the banks of rivers, was obtained from the neighbourhood of Babylon.

Forest trees.

Near the most common forest trees in France, such as the oak, the birch, the elm, the mountain ash and the beech, may now be seen in the false acacia, which Robin brought from Virginia, different American oaks, and the horse chestnut tree, indigenous to Turkey in Asia. The Norwegian and Canadian firs now grow on the highest regions in the kingdom. To the aspen tree, to the black and white poplars, natives of the country, are added other varieties from Italy and America. But all the woods and plantations in France do not occupy a greater surface than 17,500,000 English acres. An extent too small to render available all the means necessary for the preservation of the forests.

Local industry, climate, and a favourable exposure, add in several departments to the value of certain plants. Forests of resinous trees extend along the sea coast in the department of Landes; in the same country and in the department of Lot and Garonne, the *quercus suber* or cork oak is cultivated throughout an extent of thirty or forty leagues. The firs of the Vosges and Jura are used by the house carpenter; indeed in that part of France, few or no firs are imported from northern countries. The pine furnishes the peasant of Brittany with a substitute for oil and candles.

Cerasus Sylvestris.

The fruit of a particular cherry tree, *cerasus sylvestris*, that abounds in the Vosges, yields by distillation, a *kirchenwasser*, not inferior to any that can be had in the Black Forest. The mulberry tree, the olive and the orange are cultivated in the southern departments. The fruit of the plum tree forms a considerable branch of trade in the departments of Var, Lot and Garonne, Indre and Loire. The finest fruits in the country round Paris are the chasselas or raisins of Fontainbleau, the peach of Montreuil and the Montmorency cherry.

Vegetables

Vines.

Soil.

Different vegetables have acquired, on certain soils, a superior quality; one or two instances may be mentioned, among others, the kidney beans in the neighbourhood of Soissons, the carrots of Amiens, and the artichokes in the country round Laons.* The vineyards in France yield two hundred and fifty different sorts of wine, they extend over a surface of 5,000,000 acres, and their mean produce is supposed to be equal to 880,000,000 gallons. The best sorts are obtained from the ancient provinces of Champagne, Burgundy, Lyonnais, Dauphiny and Bordelais.

To divide the soil of France into seven different kinds, after the example of Arthur Young, might lead to errors which have been too often repeated.† As there is not a department in which the surface does not consist of lands, more or less rich, light, strong and sandy, how can twenty one departments be arbitrarily divided into rich or heavy soils, nineteen into heath land, eight into chalky soils, two into gravel land, fifteen into stony, as many into mountainous, and six into sandy soils. The study of geology tends to correct such mistakes; thus, what has been called vegetable land, is merely an alluvial stratum, formed while the surface of different lands, was covered with fresh water; the same stratum is fruitful in proportion to the quantity of decomposed plants or vegetables contained in it; if thin, it mixes with the rocks that support it, if imperceptible, sand, argil or calcareous substances, exposed to view, form a soil in which the perfection of agriculture consists in supplying the defects of nature. Lastly, the inequalities in the soil have a great influence on the fertility of different lands, because in low valleys the alluvial deposits are greater than in plains, and the latter for the same reason are more fruitful than hills or lofty ridges. It may not, however, be difficult to determine or characterise a great extent of surface, where the soil, naturally sterile, is fructified by the effects of industry, and a judicious system of agriculture.

* See in the statistical tables, the quantity of land reserved for particular sorts of culture.

† The above mentioned division is still adopted in the last edition of Guthrie's Geography.

BOOK CXLI.

Mountainous regions.

The Vosges and the Pyrenees are in many places very unfruitful, although the Cevennes, in which the rocks are of the same kind, prove what may be done by the persevering labour and industry of man. In that part of the country, as well as in some parts of Auvergne, walls are raised at separate distances, in order to retain the alluvial deposits, which otherwise must have been carried by the waters to the lowest vallies. The southern portion of one department,—the Gironde, and almost the whole of another, —the Landes, are covered with sands, which might become wholly unproductive, if the inhabitants did not avail themselves of a plant, best adapted to the nature of the soil,—the maritime pine, that yields a great quantity of resin, and thus enables them to carry on no inconsiderable trade. If the same sands are mixed with any calcareous substance, such as the fossil shell fish in the neighbourhood of Bordeaux, they form a oils favourable to the culture of the vine,; nay, they may be even rendered productive by force of manure, as for example, the plain of Boulogne near Paris. By the same means, the present sterile sands of Sologne in the department of Cher, and others in Brittany might be cultivated. The chalky plains of Champagne are fruitful wherever their surface is covered with an alluvial deposit of argil; but in the arid parts of the same province, different trees might be planted. The importance of encouraging agriculture in France, may be admitted from the fact, that the surface of unproductive or waste lands, cannot be estimated at less than 10,000,000 acres, in other words, at a twelfth part of the whole kingdom. If so great a surface were rendered productive, a considerable increase must necessarily follow in the number of inhabitants, since more than a sixth part would be added to the amount of arable land in France, which is considered equal to 57,000,000, acres. The average produce of the same land according to the most correct calculations, is equivalent to 51,000,000 hectolitres of wheat,* 30,300,000 of meslin, 6,300,000 of maize, 8,400,000 of rye, 32,000,000 of oats, and 20,000,000 of potatoes. It follows from the nature and position of the

Chalky plains.

Products of the soil.

* The hectolitre contains nearly three English bushels.

soil in different parts of France, that eleven departments, the Lozere, the Creuse, Finistere; the Cotes du Nord, Manche, Calvados, Orne, the Lower Seine, the Somme, the Pas-de-Calais and the Nord, are wholly destitute of vineyards; forty produce lint, and hemp is extensively cultivated in fifty-seven.

Natural vegetation.

It is unnecessary to enumerate the plants that compose the French Flora, it may be observed, however, that they are divided into more than 830 genera and 6000 species, a number greater than that in Germany, although the latter country is larger than France.

Animals.

The wild animals that frequent the mountains, woods and fields, are not so numerous as in Germany, because the forests are not so large, and the mountains, not so extensive. The black bear (Ursus Pyrenaicus) and the brown bear are found in the French part of the Pyrenees; the lynx, of which the piercing eyes are proverbial, frequents the High Alps, it is now, however, more rarely observed than formerly; the chamois and the wild goat never leave the summits that form the eastern and southern limits of the kingdom. The forests in the Vosges, and the woods on the Moselle, afford shelter to the squirrel *(sciurus vulgaris)*; another variety of a dark brown colour with white stripes, the *sciurus alpinus*, and the Siberian flying squirrel, which issues from its retreat in the night, and by means of its dilated sides, springs from one branch to another, are not uncommon in many parts of the High Alps. The yellow marten *(mustela alpina)* is found in the same department; the marmot *(arctomys marmotta)*, a social animal, frequents the cavities near the summits of the French Alps and Pyrenees. In the neighbouring departments of the Vosges, may be seen the enemy of the field mouse, the ermine *(mustela herminea)*, of which the fur is imported from the frozen plains of Siberia, and the hamster or *mus crissetus*, famous for its migrations, found in the north and south of Russia, in Poland, the Ukraine, Hungary, Germany and Alsace, where it is called the marmot of Strasburg. The hamster lays waste the crops; each of them, it is said, amasses in its hole or den from twelve to a hundred pounds of grain; as intrepid as it is fierce, it

BOOK CXLI.

never retreats before its enemies, not even before man, who has so much interest in destroying it. All the extensive forests serve as places of refuge for the wolf, the most destructive of the carnivorous animals in France. In some provinces, the polecat, the weasel and the fox are the terror of the poultry yards. The solitary and distrustful badger digs its den in the remotest woods, and the mole raises its hills in the most fruitful lands. The rat, the field mouse, the common mouse and the dormouse frequent the fields and the gardens. The water rat *(arvicola amphibius)* and the otter seek holes on the banks of such marshes and rivers as are little frequented.

Birds.

Almost every species of bird, common to Europe, is found in France. The flamingos that migrate from the shores of Africa, appear in flocks on the coast of the Mediterranean. The witwall or *galgulus garrulus*, of which the plumage is varied with tints of blue, green and violet, is by no means rare in the southern departments, some others in the same part of the country, are the midwall *(merops apiaster)*, probably indigenous to the island of Candia, the beccafico or fig-pecker, that are sold for high prices in Paris and different piannets or creepers that frequent steep rocks or the walls of ancient castles. Numerous species visit France every year at the approach of spring, and remain until the end of autumn,—passing the winter in a warmer climate; these are different species of the lark and thrush, quails, ortolans, and hoops, the loriolus, the mesengia, and the martlet; birds of which the plumage is adorned with the most vivid colours. In the same country is found the turtle dove;—love indeed appears to be the end of its existence, but it may be considered an emblem of inconstancy, not of fidelity; the swallow builds its nest on the houses, and the nightingale sings in the groves, when fresh with the first colours of spring. Among the other singing birds are the goldfinch, the linnet and the bulfinch.

Birds of passage.

Partridges, &c.

Other birds abound in different parts of France; in the central and western departments, the red partridge cannot be considered rare, but in the southern, the grey are more common than any other variety. Woodcocks and

snipes frequent the woods and marshes; the first are very numerous in Picardy, and the second in Auvergne. Lastly, the coasts of the Channel and the Ocean are frequented by different kinds of wild fowl, the plover, the lapwing, the widgeon, the sea lark and the wild duck, of which a great many are sent to Paris by the inhabitants of Lower Charente.

Reptiles.

The common viper and the asp are often seen in mountainous, stony and wooded districts, such as the country round Lyons, Grenoble and Poitiers; it has been remarked that these venomous reptiles appear most commonly in the morning, and in places with an eastern exposure; they live on insects, mice and other small animals. The reptiles common to the central departments of France, are the viperous adder, the green and the yellow adder, which may be easily tamed. A distinct species, called the Bordelaise, as well as the masked adder, are found in the neighbourhood of Bordeaux; another sort, which grows to the length of six feet, is confined to the southern provinces; the provençal, which is never longer than eight or nine inches, indicates by its name the country it inhabits. Many of the snakes are not dangerous, some indeed, known by the name of hedge eels in the rural districts, are not considered unwholesome food. The animals belonging to the Saurian order, are sufficiently numerous,* but the most remarkable perhaps, is the gecko of Mauritania, which frequents the Mediterranean coasts. A crocodile still preserved at Lyons, was taken from the Rhone about two centuries ago. Could it have been the last that was sprung from the reptiles, of which the fossil remains are found among the calcareous strata in France, or was it carried by currents from Africa to the embouchure of the Rhone? Different varieties of frogs and toads make up the batrachian class;† the *Rana bombina* abounds in the central districts, and during rainy nights annoys the inhabitants with a continued and disagreeable croaking. The *Bufo obstetricans*, which conceals itself un-

Batrachian class.

* The word Saurian has been lately introduced into the nomenclature of natural history; it is derived from the Greek word Σαυρα, a lizard.

† From Βατραχος, a frog.

BOOK CXLI.

der stones, and frees the female of its eggs in order to carry them to some pool, is found in every department. The green toad, which, when struck, diffuses an odour resembling that of ambergris, and the thorny toad, a hideous animal, some of them of monstrous shapes, are confined to the mountainous districts. The turtle, which the ancients used in making their lyres, is sometimes taken on the coasts of the Mediterranean and the Ocean; the fresh water tortoise, not uncommon in the southern marshes, is frequently kept in gardens, because it destroys insects and noxious animals. The water eft is most common in the southern departments, the ordinary lizard frequents them all.

Many individuals are employed in fishing on the extensive coasts of France, and the products of their labour are distributed in the remotest frontiers. The channel and the ocean supply the inhabitants with turbot, ray, soles, cod, salmon, whitings, mackarel, mullet and sardel. The last sort is so abundant that the sardel fisheries on the coast of Brittany, yield an annual profit of L.83,000. Other sorts are taken by the fishermen on the Mediterranean, the most valuable are the tunny and the anchovy.

Whales.

Cetaceous animals sometimes appear on the French coasts; a cachalot or *trumpo* was taken in the neighbourhood of Bayonne in 1741; thirty-one large cachalots belonging to a distinct species *(physeter macrocephalus)*, were stranded by a tempest on the western coast of Audierne in Lower Brittany, in 1784. The whale, the giant of the northern seas, frequented the gulfs of Gascony and Lions in the time of Strabo and Pliny.* The Basques derived considerable profit from their whale fisheries about the beginning of the twelfth century; since that time the whale has fled for refuge from man into the frozen seas, and its appearance on the French coast is cited as a rare phenomenon. In 1620, a whale more than a hundred feet in length, fell on the island of Corsica; in 1720, another about seventy-two feet long was taken in the bay of the Somme; one was found upwards of sixty-two feet in length on the island of Oleron in 1826; lastly, the inhabitants of St. Cyprian near Per-

* See Pliny's Natural History, Book IX. ch. 6. Strabo, Book III, ch. 2, § 2.

pignan, conveyed a whale to their burgh, which, according to their measurement, was sixty-three feet in length, and which they found on the shores of the Mediterranean in 1828.

Snails.

The terrestrial molluscæ might be passed over in silence, if several species, valuable as delicacies, or useful as remedies in pectoral affections, were not included among the helecites or snails. Three different sorts, common in the fields of southern France, together with the *pomatia*, the most common of them all, since it is found in every vineyard, the shagreen helecite that frequents the gardens, and the nemoral helecite of the meadows and fields, are those that are eaten, or which furnish the materials for soups and cosmetics. Immense numbers of them are consumed in Alsace and Saintonge; from the last province alone, snails are in some years exported to the amount of L.1000;—they are even sent to the Antilles.

Molluscæ.

The fishing of marine molluscæ forms a much more important branch of industry; the horse-footed oyster (*ostrea hippopous*), common on the coast near Boulogne-sur-Mer, is by no means considered the best sort of oyster. The ordinary oyster (*ostrea edulis*), is so much prized, that the quantity consumed every year in Paris, is equal in value to L.42,000. The departments of Lower Charente, Manche and Calvados, are those from which the best sorts are taken. The common muscle (*mytulus edulis*) is a valuable food to the lower orders on some of the French coasts. The crustacea, too, are very useful for the same purpose. The *portumus velutinus* and the *cancer pagurus*, form partly the nourishment of the people in the seaports and coasts. The lobster (*attacus marinus*), and another species (*Palinurus vulgaris*), remarkable for its great size and its brown and yellow colour, appear on the tables of the wealthy Parisians.

Crustacea.

Insects.

Several noxious insects are found in France, some of them are indigenous to the country, as a particular sort of weevil, very destructive to grain. The European and red scorpions are not unknown in the departments on the coasts of the Mediterranean. The *black bellied lycosis*, a sort of tarantula spider, may be observed in the same part of the kingdom, it is very like the one concerning which so many

fables have been related in Italy. The commercial relations between France and India have been the means of transporting others from the latter country, the aphis, which destroys the apple tree, two sorts of neuroptera, the *lucifuga* and *flavicola*, are mostly confined to Provence and the neighbourhood of Bordeaux, where they devour the timber in the houses and naval arsenals. Although not numerous, other insects are very useful,—the bee enables the inhabitants of the southern provinces to export a great quantity of honey; the silk-worm, habituated to the climate, since the time that Lewis the Eleventh planted the mulberry tree, forms by its products part of the riches in Dauphiny. The weight of the raw silk thus obtained in French manufactories, is equal to 5,200,000 kilogrammes.* The winged insect that forms the gall nut, adds very considerably to the value of the oaks in the southern departments; and the cantharides furnish one of the most powerful agents that are used in medicine.

It now remains for us to give a short account of the most useful domestic animals in France, and thus terminate the few remarks that have been made concerning the animal kingdom in that country. The breed of horses, to which little attention has hitherto been paid, might be greatly improved, nay, it might rival the finest that is known in Europe. Government has proposed to encourage the crossing of different breeds, and if the judicious plans which it has formed, be carried into effect, the results that may be reasonably expected, must be attended with great advantage.

Horses.

Good cavalry and post horses are bred in the departments of Somme, Pas de Calais, Ardennes, Upper and Lower Rhine; but the horses in Seine-et-Oise, Aisne, Seine-et-Marne, are better fitted for artillery. The best carriage and saddle horses are those from Orne and Calvados; they belong to the breed which is said to have been introduced into France by the Danes, who under the name of Normans, settled in the country. The horses of Maine-et-Loire, Sarthe, Eure-et-Loire, Drome, Isere, High Alps, Upper Saone, Doubs and Jura, are better adapted for light cavalry. The

* The kilogrammme is equal to a thousand grammes; the gramme is nearly equal to 19 grains.

horses of Morbihan and Corsica are by no means remarkable for their symmetry, but they are said to be almost indefatigable. Other breeds in the departments of Ain, Cote-d'Or, Saone-et-Loire, Allier and Nievre, are equally reputed for the same qualities; but the best horses both for strength and swiftness are bred in some parts of southern France. The Limousin breed is confined to the departments of Correze, Upper Vienne, Cantal, Puy-de-Dome, and Dordogne. The horses, known by the name of *Navarrins*, are most common in the Eastern and Lower Pyrenees, but they are also bred in the departments of Aveyron, Lot, Gers and Arriege.

The French ass must be considered a degenerate animal, if compared with the asses of Spain and Italy; one sort, however, in the department of Vienne, forms an exception, it is remarkable for its long hair and great size, almost equal to that of a mule.

Oxen.

It is believed that there are not fewer than twelve or fifteen kinds of oxen in France. Those in Upper Vienne, Charente and Lower Charente, are most probably of the same breed; they are of a redish brown colour, their horns are long, large and tapering; their weight varies from six hundred to eight hundred and fifty pounds. The oxen in the the departments of Creuse, Indre and Cher, are for the most part of a light colour; they weigh from five hundred to seven hundred pounds.* In the department of Gironde, the oxen are of a dirty white colour, they are heavier than the two last sorts. In the departments of Cantal and Puy-de-Dome, they are mostly of a red colour with short and white horns; they weigh from five hundred and fifty to eight hundred and fifty pounds. The oxen in the department of Saone and Loire, are as heavy as those in Upper Vienne. The oxen in Lower Loire and Maine-et-Loire are gray, black, dark brown and brindled, many of them are equal in weight to nine hundred pounds. In Morbihan, they are small and spotted, they weigh rarely above five hundred pounds. A breed of low oxen, not uncommon in Sarthe, has the advantage of being easily fattened. The other sorts differ so little from those which have been already mentioned, that it

* Ninety-one and a half of these pounds are equal to 100 lbs. avoirdupois.

BOOK CXLI.

requires a good judge to distinguish them. They are not all reared in the countries in which they are produced, thus few are bred in Normandy, but very many are fattened on its rich pastures.

Sufficient attention has not been paid in France to the breeding of sheep, at all events, the wool in the country is still inferior to that of Saxony. Sheep are more numerous in the ancient province of Berri, than in any other part of the kingdom. Those bred in the country round Beauvais are very large, but the sheep in Burgundy and Ardennes are better for the table. The best sorts are those on the sandy coasts of the maritime provinces. The sheep of Rousillon are very like the merinos in the fineness of their wool. The advantages that result from crossing the different Spanish and French breeds have been already sufficiently proved; still however, that branch of rural economy is neglected,—such are the effects of ignorance and prejudice.

Pigs.

Three different sorts of pigs are common in different parts of France. The pure breed, as it is called, existed in the country in the time of the Celts, and is still preserved in Normandy; it may be fattened until it attains to a great weight; some of them weigh from three hundred to four hundred pounds; it is distinguished by its small head, narrow ears and white colour. The Poitou pigs are not so large, neither are they so well made; they are remarkable for large heads, broad pendent ears and long white hair. A third sort in Perigord differs from the others in the roughness of its skin, and in its black colour. The other kinds are sprung from these three breeds, they resemble more or less one or other of them, and differ principally in their colour, black being prevalent in the south, white in the north, black and white in Central France. A great many pigs are bred in the departments of the Lower Rhine, the Moselle, the Meuse, the Aube and the Marne.

Poultry.

The poultry in some departments are not the least valuable of their products; *the cock and hen of Caux* form a distinct variety; to ascertain its superiority, it may be necessary to partake of the excellent fowls that are fattened in the neighbourhood of Barbezieux, La Fleche and Mans. The ash-coloured goose (anser cinereus), the type of the domes-

tic goose, attains a great size in Lower Languedoc; there are many of them also in the departments of Lower Rhine, Upper Garonne and others in western France. The best ducks, it is said, are those in Lower Normandy and Languedoc. The manner in which the goose and duck are fed in some departments, renders their livers excessively large, and gives them a delicacy that gourmands are able to appreciate. The geese round Strasburg, and the ducks round Toulouse, are thus tortured to gratify the corrupt tastes of the Parisians.

Importations.

That different branches of rural economy require to be improved, must be admitted from the fact that the number of domestic animals is not sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants. France imports every year on an average about 23,000 horses, 900 asses, 800 mules, 40,000 oxen, 167,500 Spanish sheep, 4700 goats, 148,800 pigs, 5,800,000 raw hides, 5,900,000 kilogrammes of fine and coarse wool, and a great quantity of feathers. Such imports, amounting in value to nearly L.2,000,000,* say very little for rural industry, which instead of being dependent in any way on foreign countries, ought to swell the tide of exportation from France.

* See the memoir by M. Senac, entitled *Projet de Societé d' Amelioration des animaux domestiques*, inserted in the Bulletin Universel des Sciences et de l'industrie; section des Sciences Agricoles, 1826.

BOOK CXLII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Kingdom of France. First Section. Southern region.

BOOK CXLII.

SOME account has been given in a preceding chapter of the people from whom the French are descended; it has been seen that their chiefs have added to their power by conquests, that in some instances they have wielded the destinies of Europe. The resources which it derives from its climate, soil and natural wealth, were enumerated in the last chapter. Such at least was the end proposed in describing the country in its connexion with historical and physical geography. It now remains for us to examine France in detail,—a task not without difficulty. It would be desirable to adhere to the accuracy and precision which ought to be the basis of topography, and at the same time to avoid unnecessary repetition in naming the departments, districts and chief towns, which, unlike the ancient governments and provinces, have not the advantage of being connected with historical associations. The artificial division by which France is made to consist of five regions, those on the south, the east, the centre, the west and the north, appears on the whole to be the best or, at all events, the one by which its chorography may be the most conveniently explained. Besides, the same method has been established by custom, it is familiar to a great many persons, and it is also useful in another point of view, for the new and ancient divisions may thus be determined with tolerable accuracy. The same route that has been

Five regions.

followed in the last chapter, the one from the south to the east and north, may be continued in the present.

Corsica.

Corsica is the largest French department in point of extent, the least in point of population. Placed between Italy, Spain and France, civilization and industry may one day render it a very advantageous commercial and maritime station; indeed when European states acknowledge the folly of maintaining colonies, long since proved to be more onerous than profitable, France may find in the fruitful soil of Corsica, and in its climate, well adapted for colonial produce, a source of wealth that requires apparently an enlightened government to realize.

Ajaccio

When the traveller, who quits the coasts of France for the port of Ajaccio, first observes the island, it has the appearance of an enormous pyramid formed by mountains, which, from the effect of distance, seem to be grouped round each other. The chief town or the residence of the prefect, is not the largest of the Corsican cities. Bastia, which was formerly styled the capital of the island, is the most populous, but Ajaccio is considered the most ancient; for it was the seat of a diocess at so early a period as the sixth century. It is true that the miasms from a neighbouring marsh, made the inhabitants determine to abandon the place in the year 1435, so that the present Ajaccio is distant about a mile from the site of the ancient town. The streets are broad and straight, the houses are not without elegance, the prefecture is at once a simple and imposing edifice, the barracks are large, the harbour, spacious and convenient, the entrance into it is guarded by a citadel. The places connected with education, by so much the more necessary as the inhabitants are still bigoted to their prejudices and ancient customs, are a college, a library of 13,000 volumes, a botanical garden, and an agricultural society. A large edifice is at present building to serve as an hospital, an asylum for foundlings, and a school for young girls. The commerce of the town consists in the sale of the oil and wine produced in the neighbouring country, and in coral which is obtained on the southern coasts. Ajaccio is likely to be for ever memorable, for Napoleon Bonaparte was born within its walls

BOOK CXLII.

in 1769. Urcino, a small anchorage in the gulf of Sagona, at some leagues to the north of Ajaccio, indicates the site of *Urcinium*, a Roman town, once well known on account of its earthern vases, in which the ancients kept their Falernian. Ajaccio is the residence of the bishop and the prefect; but Bastia, situated at the opposite extremity on the coast fronting Italy, is the residence of the commander in chief. As a fortified town, it may be considered as belonging to the first class; it has a college and a theatre. A society for the purpose of diffusing instruction has of late years been instituted. It is not so well built as Ajaccio; its harbour constructed in the form of an amphitheatre can only receive small vessels, but commerce and industry place it above its rival; it carries on a trade in soap, paste, wax, liqueurs and other articles. The burgh of Mariana at four leagues to the south, near the banks of the Golo, stands on the site of an ancient town, which bore the same name, and which according to tradition was founded by Marius.

Bastia.

Mariana.

The other towns in the island are of less consequence; Calva on the western coast is defended by a fortress, and its anchorage might contain a large fleet. St. Florent at three leagues to the west of Bastia, and Porto Vecchio on the eastern coast are known for their good wine and granite quarries. These places, as well as Bonafacio, which carries on a trade in wine, oil and olives, are provided with convenient and safe harbours. Sartene, situated at the base of the heights, which command the left bank of the Valinco, has been entitled a subprefecture. Corte, almost in the centre of the island, near the confluence of the Orta and the Tavignano, is a poor and ill-built town; its isolated situation in a mountainous district at a comparatively great distance from the sea, prevents the increase of its commerce, which consists merely in agricultural products.

Department of the Var.

The passage boats between the island of Corsica and France were by no means remarkable for their celerity, but since the commencement of the year 1830, steam vessels have sailed regularly, and the communication between the two countries, has in consequence been much facilitated. The mouth of the Var may be seen from the vessels as

they approach the port of Antibes; the lower part of the same river serves as a boundary between the kingdom of France and the county of Nice, now dependent on the Sardinian crown. The country forms part of Provence, the earliest conquest of the Romans in Gaul, the same people called it *Provincia*, the name has thus been preserved. Antibes, a place of great antiquity, the *Antipolis* of the ancients, was founded 340 years before the vulgar era by the Greek colonists that built Marseilles. Augustus made it a municipal town, but before his time it must have been a place of some consequence, since it had its theatre and other public buildings, of which the ruins still remain. Trade animated the harbour, and the tunny fisheries furnished employment to many individuals. Although it has now lost its commerce, it is still important as a military station. As a strong town it belongs to the third class; such as it is, however, it may oppose a barrier to the invasions which threaten France from the Sardinian frontier. The island of St. Marguerite rises between the gulfs of Juan and Napoule; its strong castle, once an ancient state prison, served as a place of confinement for the mysterious prisoner with the iron mask. Cannes, where Napoleon landed in 1815, may be mentioned among the maritime towns in the department of the Var; fifteen years before that period, he disembarked at Frejus on his return from Egypt. The last town, although small, is larger than Cannes, it was the *Forum Julii*, a place embellished by Julius Cæsar and Augustus, but probably founded, like Antibes, by a Greek colony. The name by which it was known before it became the station to the eighth Roman legion, has long been forgotten; still, however, monuments and ruins are not wanting to attest its ancient splendour. The harbour, twice as large as the harbour of Marseilles, was the largest in Gaul. Agricola, the father-in-law of Tacitus, was born in the same place, now an inconsiderable town, whose inhabitants have to contend against an unwholesome atmosphere and a marshy situation. Saint Tropez, at the distance of five leagues from Frejus, on the gulf of Grimaud, is remarkable on the other hand for its salubrious climate. The harbour is defended by a citadel, and in the dockyards

Antibes.

Frejus.

Saint Tropez.

are built the fishing-boats that are used on the coast; it stands on the site of *Heraclea Caccabaria*, well known for its temple of Hercules. Hyères, like the last place, is famed for a mild and salubrious climate, and also for the excellent oranges produced in the vicinity.

Toulon.

Toulon, it has been said, was founded by the Roman general Telo Martius, about the middle of the fourth century; it was famous during the reign of Arcadius for different dies, particularly purple. The harbour, one of the largest in Europe, is divided into two parts, the old, finished by Henry the Fourth, and the new, built by Lewis the Fourteenth; they communicate with each other by means of a canal. The careening wharf, three hundred feet long and one hundred broad, the rope yard, an arched building, 1572 feet in length, the arsenal, the docks, the foundry and the sail manufactory are the most important places in the town. Toulon stands near the base of a hill, which commands it on the north. The streets are narrow and irregular, the squares are not very imposing, one however forms an exception, the Field of Battle, for so it has been called, is a spacious square adorned with a double range of trees. The principal balcony in the townhouse is supported by two grotesque figures of colossal size, the work of the celebrated Pujet; it is said that the artist wished to represent two consuls by whom he was disappointed in a favourite project. The town was partly destroyed by the Arabs about the end of the tenth century; having been built by the counts of Marseilles, it was twice ruined in the twelfth century by the Mahometans. The duke of Savoy, aided by the English and the Dutch, besieged it in vain about the beginning of the eighteenth century. The Spaniards and the English, availing themselves of the civil dissensions in France, found bribery and intrigue more successful weapons in 1793; but they did not keep it long, at the end of a few months, they were driven to their ships by the young soldier, who afterwards filled Europe with his fame. The chevalier Paul, who was born in the town, rose in the course of the last century from a very humble station, that of a common sailor, to be vice-admiral of France.

The country round Toulon is adorned with groves of lemon, olive and date trees, villas are scattered in different directions. Beyond them on the road to Marseilles, are situated the *Gorges d'Ollioules*, a wild valley enclosed by arid heights; in some places, their precipitous and abrupt sides appear as if they were about to fall, in others they are like the ruins of ancient ramparts. The road across the *Moorish mounts*, so called from the devastations committed by African pirates, during the reign of Lewis the Twelfth, leads to Brignolles, a small town, situated in a pleasant country. The pureness of the air, its position on the side of a hill near the fruitful valley of Calami, abounding in grain and wine, render it perhaps the most agreeable residence in the department. Although it contains several manufactories, the principal trade consists in dried plums, which are transported into different countries. It is said to have been founded before the Christian era; it was the birth-place of St. Lewis, bishop of Toulon, and grand nephew to St. Lewis the Ninth.

Gorges d'Ollioules.

Brignolles.

A rich plain extends between Brignolles and Draguignan, the capital of the department; in the same plain are produced the large chestnuts that are sold in Paris. Draguignan is watered by several fountains, and traversed by the Pis, a small river; the principal curiosities are a botanical garden, a good library and a museum of natural history. At two leagues from it, is situated Grasse, a much more important place both in point of population and industry; it stands on the side of a hill, commanding a view of fields and gardens, where the orange, the jessamine and the rose mingle their perfume. Swarms of bees, a source of wealth in that part of the country, find in these and other flowers abundant nourishment, although the inhabitant extracts from them the juices that are converted into liqueurs or essences, and sold in every quarter of the world.

Draguignan.

Grasse.

Castellane, now well known for its dried fruits and plums, is the first town in the department of the Lower Alps on the road from Grasse to Dignes. On account of the salt springs, one of which is large enough to turn a mill, it obtained in ancient times the name of *Salinæ*. Dignes,

Department of the Lower Alp —Castellane.

BOOK CXLII.

an ancient city that Cæsar calls *Digna*,* is situated in the midst of mountains, that might afford an ample harvest to the mineralogist and the botanist. It consists of steep and narrow streets, enclosed by old walls, and flanked with square turrets. The palaces belonging to the prefect and the bishop, together with the cathedral, are the only public buildings, and they are nowise remarkable. The thermal springs in the vicinity, to which the ancients repaired,† are visited during the summer and autumn by Italians and people from different parts of France.‡ The small village of Champtercier near the town, has been rendered famous as the birthplace of the celebrated Gassendi, a philosopher, an astronomer and the rival of Descartes. Colmars may be mentioned on account of a fountain, from which the water flows and intermits alternately every seven minutes. The rich valley of Barcelonette affords pasturage to numerous flocks of sheep, and to many herds of oxen; it derives its name from a small town built in 1230, on the site of a Roman city, by Count Raimond Berenger, and as his ancestors had migrated from Barcelona, the place was called *Barcelonette*. *Segustero*, a Latin name of Celtic origin, announces the antiquity of Sisteron at the confluence of the Buech and the Durance. The river, confined in the town between the two rocks on which the fortress of La Beaume rises, flows rapidly below a lofty arcade, to which the same rocks serve as butments. The principal altar in the cathedral is adorned with a fine painting by Wanloo, and at no great distance from the building, a walk laid out with much taste, leads to one of the gates on the road to Aix. Albertes was born in Sisteron, a Provençal poet that flourished in the thirteenth century,—he was still more unfortunate than Petrarch, for he actually died of love;—the object of his passion was Laura, the beautiful marchioness of Malespine. It might be difficult to account for the origin of a singular custom that

Sisteron.

* Digna inter Montes posita. Cæsar; De Bello Gallico.

† They are mentioned by Ptolemy and Pliny.

‡ For the quality and properties of these waters, the reader may consult the statistical tables.

exists in the country between Sisteron and Dignes; the peasants wrap their dead in a winding sheet, place them on the roofs of the huts, and cover them with snow during winter. Claudius Tiberius Nero, sent by Cæsar into Narbonensis, founded there a small town, the *Forum Neronis*, on the site of which, Forcalquier stands at present, the capital of a subprefecture, a dirty and ill built city near a rock, commanded by the ruins of an ancient castle.

Several ancient monuments have been observed in the same department; an inscription on a rock near Sisteron, informs the antiquary that Dardanus and Neva Gallia, his wife, introduced the custom of interring the dead in vaults at Theopolis, the present village of Theoux. A bridge attributed to Cesar, and the tower of Ænobarbus are still seen near the village of Cereste, five leagues distant from Forcalquier. The ruins of several ancient temples are situated near the small town of Riez.

Department of the Bouches du Rhone.

The department of the Bouches du Rhone contains too a thousand objects, which recall ancient recollections. In the neighbourhood of St. Remy, are observed a triumphal arch erected to Marius, and a mausoleum fifty feet in height.

Aix.

Aix, formerly the capital of Provence, was founded a hundred and twenty years before the vulgar era by the consul Caius Sextius Calvinus, near the mineral springs which he himself had discovered, and on account of which he gave the name of Aquæ Sextiæ to the town. It became soon afterwards a place of importance; the emperor Tiberius raised a temple there to the memory of Augustus; it had its senate and a body of decurions. Many articles of antiquity have been discovered in the same place, the most of them are collected in the town-house. The sculptures and architecture of several edifices are connected with the rise of art in modern times. Such is the cathedral, of which the baptistery, constructed with the remains of a Roman temple, forms a very beautiful ornament. The town-clock near the fountain in the market place, was erected during the middle ages; it is curious on account of its mechanism; springs put in motion different figures every time the hammer strikes the bell. The streets are paved, and many of the houses are well built. The Or-

BOOK CXLII.

bitelle, a public walk, is formed by four rows of trees, and adorned with several fountains. The counts of Provence resided at Aix, formerly the seat of a court, where gallantry and politeness reigned, where poetry was admired, and troubadours respected. It is still a collegiate town, where students may find ample means of instruction; it possesses an academy, schools of law and theology, several scientific collections, and a library of 80,000 volumes. In 1819, the mayor laid the foundation of a monument in honour of king René, whose memory must be for ever dear to the people of Provence; but if the inhabitants were to raise monuments to each of their celebrated townsmen, the walks and public places might acquire additional interest from the statues of Tournefort, Wanloo, Adanson, Vauvenargues and Entrecasteaux. The glory which these distinguished men shed over the town, may console it for having given birth to the president D'Oppede, whose sad celebrity is still preserved in the annals of fanaticism. The procession on Corpus Christi-day attracts many idle persons to Aix, to enjoy probably the sight of sacred and profane ceremonies, of saints and devils with long horns,—a ridiculous masquerade, in which the principal characters are sustained by the clergy and municipal authorities. The procession was abolished at the revolution, and afterwards renewed, but it might have been as well to have discontinued part of the ceremonies, inconsistent with the ideas of the age and the respect due to religion.

Procession, Corpus Christi.

Marseilles.

The country in the neighbourhood of Marseilles announces a populous and commercial town; it consists of cultivated fields, gardens and country houses or villas, of which the number is not less than 5000. Surrounded with manufactories, built on the declivity of a hill, and on a plain that extends to the sea, its situation cannot be compared with that of any other town in France. The old town on the declivity, may give the stranger an unfavourable idea of the place;—the finest part of Marseilles is that nearest the sea. Sailors of every nation are seen on the quay; the streets on the same quarter are straight and well paved, a public walk extends round the best harbour in the kingdom, sufficiently large to contain two hun-

dred vessels, and the noisy centre of the trade which France carries on with the east. The castle of If, an ancient state prison, is perhaps the most striking object in the view from the summit of Notre Dame de la Garde, but the spectator may also observe institutions and edifices, of which the town's people are justly proud,—schools of hydrography, medicine, drawing and music, seminaries where chemistry, geometry, and different sciences in their application to the arts are gratuitously taught, a college, an observatory, a mint, an exchange, a lazaretto, the largest and the best regulated in the kingdom. At the sight of such institutions, one naturally remembers the *Massilia*, which Cicero called the Athens of Gaul, and Pliny, the mistress of the sciences (*Magistra studiorum*). It was the native town of Petronius, the satirist, Puget, the sculptor, Damarsais and Barbaroux, the conventionalist. The climate of Marseilles would be delightful, if the calmness of the atmosphere were not disturbed by the impetuous *mistral*. To the influence of the same wind have been attributed, probably by a stretch of the imagination, the violent character of the people, their ferocity and cruelty in the time of the revolution.

The island of Carmague may be seen from the road that leads to Arles; it is enclosed by the sea and two branches of the Rhone; it contains nine villages, a great many country houses and nearly three hundred and fifty farms, on which the proprietors or tenants rear annually 40,000 sheep, 3,000 oxen, and as many horses. The royal sheepfold of Armilliere is situated in the island. Arles or Arelas, as it was once called, an ancient capital of Gaul, is now the chief town of a district in the Bouches du Rhone. Although thinly peopled and ill-built, it may be considered one of the most remarkable cities in France, both on account of the historical associations connected with it, and the remains of ancient splendour. It is supposed that it was built fifteen hundred years before the Christian era;* the name has been derived from two Celtic words, *ar* and *lait*, which signify *near the waters*. The antiquary may still perceive several ancient arcades, the columns of a theatre,

Arles.

* See the Memoir on the ancient republic of Arles by Ambert.

BOOK CXLII.

the remains of an amphitheatre in a good state of preservation, the tower of Constantine's palace, a granite obelisk, the only granite one in France; tombs, altars and statues, are almost daily excavated. A modern edifice rises near these ruins, it is the fine townhouse erected by Mansard. The trade of Arles consists in the sale of wines, corn, fruits and oil, produced in the surrounding country. The small town of Tarascon stands on the left bank of the Rhone, and the same river separates it from Beaucaire. It is commanded by an ancient castle, formerly a country seat belonging to the dukes of Provence, afterwards changed into a prison.

Department of Vaucluse.

The course of the Durance from the place where it joins the Verdon to its confluence with the Rhone, separates the last department from that of Vaucluse. Broad and majestic, rapid as a torrent, the river covers the country with its inundations, but the fertile ooze it deposits, the canals it supplies, compensate in some measure the waste it occasions.

Avignon.

At a short distance from its streams, and on the banks of the Rhone, Avignon rises on a fruitful plain, embellished with mulberry trees, orchards and meadows. The streets are narrow and crooked; the palace of Crillon, and the ancient apostolic palace are two fine Gothic buildings; the cathedral may be remarked for a portal, which, it is supposed, was removed from an ancient temple of Hercules. The useful and charitable institutions are more numerous than might have been expected from the number of inhabitants. Among others there are an hospital, an infirmary, a collection of paintings, a museum of natural history, a botanical garden, different schools, a library of 27,000 volumes, and a learned society,—the academy of Vaucluse. It is unnecessary to mention the gaiety of the inhabitants, the grace and beauty of the women, rivalling or surpassing the fair in most towns of the south; it may be remarked, however, that the low and ignorant part of the community, the same persons that committed in 1815, crimes only equalled by those of the revolution, are now making advances in different branches of industry. Avignon was the native town of the brave Crillon, Vernet, the Abbé Poule and several men who have shed a lustre on the society of Jesuits.

The town is the mart of the grain produced in some of the southern departments; it carries on a trade in silk, cottons, leather and paper. *Avenio*, the ancient name, is of Celtic origin. Pomponius Mela says that in his time the inhabitants were very wealthy.

Apt.

Apt, a place not less ancient than the last town, was embellished by Cæsar, and bore the name of *Apta Julia*; the present walls are said to have been founded by the Romans. Many ancient remains are contained in the subterranean chapels of the old cathedral; it is watered by the Calavon.

Carpentras

Carpentras, another ancient city, surrounded with old walls, was the *Carpentoracte* of the *Memimi*, a tribe of the Cavares; it would be much improved if the streets were straight. It is the metropolis of a diocess, which has continued from the third to the nineteenth century; the columns of the principal church, the ancient cathedral, supported the temple of Diana in the burgh of Venasque. The remains of a triumphal arch are situated in the courts of the episcopal palace; it was erected to commemorate the victory which Domitius Ænobarbus gained over the Allobroges and the Arverni. The hospital, the different markets, the public lavers, the gate in the direction of Orange, surmounted by a lofty tower, and the modern aqueduct, consisting of forty-eight arches, thirty-six feet in width, and forty-five in height, are ornamental to the town. It possesses different manufactories, and carries on a trade in wines and other products of the department.

Fountain of Vaucluse.

The celebrated fountain of Vaucluse, perhaps the finest spring in Europe, is situated at an equal distance from Avignon, Apt and Carpentras. It issues from a large and deep cave at the base of a high hill, that bounds on the south the narrow and winding valley of Vaucluse (Vallis Clausa). An old fig tree near the roof or arch of the cave, serves to indicate the height of the water in the fountain. When it is at the greatest elevation, occasioned by the melted snows about the vernal equinox, it bathes the roots of the tree; the vault or arch of the cavern is then no longer visible, and the calm waters occupy a large basin, almost circular, about sixty feet in diameter. The

BOOK CXLII.

waters are lowest in the month of October, they descend to the depth of forty feet below the edge of the basin, or the roots of the fig-tree. The vault of the cave then appears in all its majesty, and the spectator may observe a lake of which the extent is lost in total darkness. Many have descended the sides of the basin, and seen the surface of the limpid water, that fills an abyss, of which the depth has never been measured. Extensive subterranean canals placed above each other, are the passages for the waters formed by melted snow. Twenty torrents are precipitated with a tremendous noise below the basin; their united streams are the sources of the Sorgues, which becomes suddenly navigable for boats, and turns several mills. A majestic column was erected on the edge of the fountain in 1809, by the academy at Vaucluse; it bears the following simple inscription in golden letters,—*A Pétrarque.* The naked rocks that encompass the cascade, the pyramidical masses on the right and left, the green sward that covers the neighbouring heights, the old turreted castle on the left bank of the Sorgues, according to tradition, the residence of Petrarch, the verdant trees that shade the river, and the village of Vaucluse, are some parts of a landscape not inferior to any other in the kingdom. A thousand echos respond to the names of Petrarch and Laura; the sympathy of the young and the fair may console the shade of the poet for the cruelty of his mistress.

The Sorgues.

Mount Ventoux, near the northern extremity of the department, remains covered with snow eight months in the year. The small town of Vaison at some leagues westwards, stands on the ruins of *Vasio*, the principal city of the *Vocontii*. Orange, seven leagues south-west of the last place, contains several manufactories, spinning looms, print-fields and madder-mills; it also carries on a trade in wine, oil, honey and saffron. It was taken by Lewis the Fourteenth, then the capital of a principality belonging to the house of Nassau. Before Cæsar's expedition into Gaul, it was one of the four principal towns in the territory of the Cavari. Ptolemy designates it by the name of *Aurosio Cavarum*. A triumphal arch at the distance of four hundred paces from the walls, on the road to Marseilles, may bear a compa-

Orange.

rison with any in Rome. It was erected to commemorate the victory gained by Marius over the Cimbri.

Department of Drome.

The Rhone forms a western limit throughout the whole length of the department of Drome; the road on the banks of the river crosses first Pierre-Latte, a small town of which the name signifying a large stone, may recall the ancient worship of the Druids, or it may be attributed to the large rock on which it is built. The agreeable town of Montelimart at five leagues northwards, is encompassed with walls and ramparts, watered by several canals, which supply different manufactories, and commanded by an ancient citadel. It is surrounded with fine meadows, fruitful plains and hills covered with excellent vineyards. The four gates that lead to the town correspond with the four cardinal points. Faujas de St. Fond, a learned professor, who promoted the study of geology, was a native of Montelimart. Valence is situated on the other side of the rapid Drome. This chief town of a department, built without regularity, contains some monuments not unworthy of notice; among others, a fine mausoleum in the cathedral, erected by Canova to the memory of Pius the Sixth, who terminated his days at Valence in 1798; the building called the *Government* is not inelegant in point of architecture. It might be worth while to visit the citadel, were it for nothing else than to enjoy the view along the Rhone, or on the west, towards the mountains of Vivarais. The same city is mentioned in the writings of Ptolemy; it was the *Valentia* of the *Segalauni*. Championet, a general, who distinguished himself by his victories during the revolutionary period, was born in the town. Die, according to the tables of Pertinger, and the itinerary of Antonine, the ancient *Dea Vocontiorum*, a place famous for muscadine wine, stands on an agreeable valley enclosed by two chains, which are connected on the north with Mount Embel, and on the south with Mount Volvent. Nyons in the southern part of the department, on the banks of the Aigues, carries on a trade in soap, woollen stuffs and silk. The bridge over the river was built by the Romans.

Montelimart.

Valence.

Department of the High Alps.

A road across the mountains near the banks of the Buech, leads to the small town of Serres, the first in the

BOOK CXLII.

department of High Alps. The place called *Batie-Mont-Saint-Leon*, within a league from the walls in the direction of Gap, is the ancient Mount Seleucus, where in the year 353 of the vulgar era, Constans gained a complete victory over Maxentius. At a league from the capital of the department, the peasants show strangers the *Trembling Meadow*, a small floating island in the lake of Pelhotiers, formed like every other of the same description by decomposed vegetables; the surface has been changed into a sort of soil, and covered with grass. Gap stands on the site of *Vappicum* or *Vapincum*. The name announces an ancient origin; but laid waste by the Lombards and the Arabians, overthrown by earthquakes, it rises on the ruins of buildings. The remains, which indicate how much it has fallen, can only be discovered by digging to a great depth. The plague by which many were destroyed in 1630, the revocation of the edict of Nantes that annihilated its industry, the almost general conflagration in 1692, when it was taken by the duke of Savoy, have reduced the population to less than half the number it possessed in the sixteenth century, when it contained 16,000 inhabitants. It is ill-paved, ill-built, and without any remarkable edifice; indeed it can only be commended on account of an agreeable position on the banks of two rivulets, the Bonne and the Luye, in a small plain bounded by mountains that form a natural amphitheatre. Embrum, called *Eborudono* in the itinerary of Antonine, was the seat of a diocess. The episcopal palace is a fine building, but inferior to the cathedral, which, it is said, was erected by Charlemagne. *Eborudono* was the principal city of the *Caturiges*; Nero and Galba conferred on it important privileges, and Valens rendered it a military station.

Passing through Montdauphin, a small stronghold of five hundred inhabitants, we may follow the road on the banks of the Durance, leave Mont Genevre on the right, and arrive at Briançon, the highest city in France. It was the *Brigantio* of the Romans, it rose afterwards into some importance; at present however it is so thinly peopled and so ill built, that it need only be mentioned on account of an impregnable position. It is defended by seven forts that

Briançon.

command all the approaches to the town. The Durance, an impetuous torrent, descends a precipice 170 feet in height; the principal fortifications are partly built on the rock above the river, and a bridge consisting of a single arch 120 feet in width, thrown over the abyss, communicates with the fortress and the town. The trade of Briançon consists in woollen and cotton goods, and also in different articles of cutlery.

Department of the Isere.

It has been said that there are four climates in the mountainous department of the Isere, and certainly there is some difference in the temperature of the arid plains, the marshes, the vallies and the mountains. The first are subject in summer to excessive heat and violent winds; the second are exposed to a humid but less elevated temperature; in the deep vallies the variations of the atmosphere are very rapid, still rains or droughts are often of long continuance. Two seasons, summer and winter, reign throughout the year on the mountains, and the latter lasts longer than the former. Among the inhabitants, are observed the same activity the same industry for which the mountaineers in other European countries are remarkable. The high part of the country is ill provided with wood, but abundant pastures compensate in some measure for the want of forests; the peasants are thus enabled to rear numerous flocks. The lofty woods in the eastern districts of the department, furnish fuel, timber for building, and masts for ships.

Road from Briançon to Grenoble.

The road which leads from Briançon to Grenoble, extends across a mountainous country, and follows the windings of the Romanche from Grave, the last village in the High Alps, to Vizelle, a burgh of no great size, but important on account of its manufactures. The forges and iron works that are scattered on the same road, indicate the metallic wealth of the mountains. Having left the wild and romantic banks of the Drac, we observe the Isere pursuing a sinuous and rapid course below a chain of heights, covered with vineyards and mulberry trees at their base, and with forests and pastures that reach to their summits. The same river waters the valley of Gresivaudan, and passess through Grenoble. The lofty ramparts of the town command a fruit-

Grenoble.

BOOK CXLII.

ful plain, varied with orchards and meadows; on the left bank of the Isere are the prefecture and the court of justice. The library belonging to the university contains sixty thousand volumes, besides many valuable manuscripts, among others, the poems of the duke of Orleans, the father of Lewis the Twelfth. The statues of Bayard, Vaucanson, Condillac and Mably, all natives of Grenoble, are erected in the college. In the schools of law, medicine and surgery, other men, still living, have been educated, who have given proofs of talent sufficiently great to merit one day a place near the distinguished persons already mentioned. The town carries on trade in different articles, particularly in gloves, which are said to be the best in France. History attests its antiquity, it was the *Cularo* of the ancients; ruined in the wars with the Romans, it was rebuilt by the emperor Gratian, who gave it the name of *Gratianopolis*, which has been corrupted into Grenoble.

Sassenage.

The burgh of Sassenage, well known for excellent cheese, is situated below the mountain that rises on the west of Grenoble. Strangers visit there two grottos, rendered famous in past times by popular superstition; within them are two cylindrical excavations, called the Vats of Sassenage, the water rises spontaneously into both, and according to the height it reaches, the peasants used to presage the scarcity or abundance of the harvest. These grottos, well worthy of being seen, are not so frequently visited at present, probably because imposture works no longer on ignorance and credulity. A rugged and difficult path leads to them; the entrance may be about forty feet broad, and as many in height; beyond it, a sort of porch forty feet wide and seventy long, terminates in several caverns; the torrent Germe issues from the largest, and forms a cascade, of which the noise is heard in the subterranean cavities.

Although the direct distance to the frozen summits of Mont Blanc exceeds twenty-five leagues, they may be distinctly seen from the heights above Grenoble.

Great Chartreuse

The Great Chartreuse lies in the same direction, a monastery formerly considered the capital of the rich and rigid order founded by St. Bruno in the year 1084. It has

taken its name not from the founder, but from the village of *Chartrouse*, situated near the valley, where the pious anchorite chose his retreat, and the convent which his disciples built. It is enclosed at the two extremities by mountain-passes extending between rugged and almost vertical cliffs covered with thorns and briars; in certain seasons of the year, particularly in spring, those who visit it, must be prepared to brave dangers at every step; enormous rocks rising on the right and on the left afford but an insecure support to other rocks that are lost in the clouds. The precipices are in some places, more than four hundred feet in perpendicular height, the voice of guides, the cries of animals are drowned in the noise of torrents. The stranger must traverse a narrow pass below the cataract of Guiers-Vif, on the slippery declivity of an immense rock, that separates the mass of water from the abyss into which it descends. These difficulties, almost insurmountable while the snow melts, cease generally about the middle of summer. But the journey in every season is very fatiguing; a bad road encumbered with large stones or broken rocks terminates in the obscurity of a forest, in which the traveller ascends constantly until he observes the Chartreuse, the valley afterwards becomes broader, and the fir gives place to the beech. An edifice of a simple and noble architecture in such a situation, is not likely to be seen for the first time without feelings of devotion. These walls were respected at the revolution, when religious houses were destroyed. The people on these mountains have not forgotten the blessings which the successors of St. Bruno diffused among the poor; they furnished employment to every inhabitant, they encouraged agriculture, and changed part of a desert into meadows and fruitful fields; under their superintendance, the forests have been preserved, the flocks have multiplied in the valleys. Now settled in their ancient residence, they no longer possess the power which was acquired partly by their wealth, but they still retain an ascendency that must be attributed to exemplary virtue, benevolence and charity.

It may not perhaps be worth while to describe all the

BOOK CXLII.

Offering of Omelets.

remarkable places in the neighbourhood of Grenoble; besides it is only from some detached features that the stranger can form an idea of the country. The hamlet of Andrieux in the valley of Godmard is so much concealed by steep rocks that the inhabitants never see the sun during three months of winter. When the luminary appears for the first time after so long an absence, all the people, according to an ancient custom, follow the oldest person to a bridge in the vicinity; every man carries an omelet, and the return of the sun is celebrated by dances. As soon as it appears, the omelets are presented as an offering, the band returns to the village, and the festival terminates in mirth and drinking.* The burgh of Echelles on the north of the Great Chartreuse, towards the limits between France and Savoy, stands near the excellent road made across rocks by Charles Emanuel,† and improved by Napoleon. The Pont de Beauvoisin on the banks of the Guiers, is the last town in France. Near the village of *Notre Dame de la Balme*, the entrance to a cave has been changed into a chapel, and dedicated to the Virgin. The interior consists of several halls with beautiful stalactites, cascades, canals and a small lake, where strangers may sail in a boat illumined with torches; and if it were not that the place was sanctified, for it belongs to the chapel, the boat might be compared to the one in which the shades of heathens are transported to the infernal regions.

Vienne.

Confined between a series of heights on the left bank of the Rhone, and watered by the Gere, Vienne consisting formerly of dirty and winding streets, has been lately embellished with many new buildings. The modern front of the town-house adorns the principal square; the portal and nave in the ancient cathedral are works of considerable merit. The town possesses a library of 12,000 volumes, a theatre, a college, a museum of natural history, and a collection of valuable antiquities, discovered within

* See the Merveilles et les Beautés de la Nature en France, by M. Depping, who relates the above anecdote on the authority of M. Laboucette, prefect of the Isere.

† In the year 1670.

the walls. The *Vienna* and *Vindebonia* of the ancients had risen into importance in Cæsar's time;* Strabo styles it the capital of the Allobroges;† Ptolemy considers it their only city,‡ and Pliny calls it a colony.§ According to Pomponius Mela, it was one of the most opulent cities in Gaul. Literature was cultivated, and the poet Martial congratulates himself on the success which his writings met with in the town.

> Fertur habere meos, si vera est fama, libellos
> Inter delicias pulchra Vienna suas.

Under Claudian's reign, the prefect of Gaul, and the commander of the fleet, which the Romans kept on the Rhone, resided at Vienne. The emperors built a palace in the town, and it was there that Valentinian was strangled in the year 392. It became afterwards the capital of the Burgundian kingdom; but the Franks made themselves masters of it in 432. It was taken in the year 871 by Charles the Bald, after a siege that lasted several months. Pope Clement the Fifth, in presence of Philip the Fair, assembled within the walls a council, memorable in the history of fanaticism, for the unjust condemnation of the templars. In the time of Eusebius, Lyons and Vienne were the two most important cities in France; the archbishop of the latter town was long entitled primate of the Gauls. If the edifices for which the place was remarkable, have been destroyed, it may be attributed to the blind zeal of the early Christians, and the devastations occasioned by war: still, however, there are the remains of a theatre, the ruins of an aqueduct and amphitheatre, a temple dedicated to Augustus, and a triumphal arch. The church of Notre-Dame de la Vie is an ancient edifice, very probably the *Pretorium*. According to several antiquaries, the bridge which serves as a communication between the town and the suburbs was built by the Romans, as well as fort Pipet, but some parts of the latter are evidently of Gothic architecture. The most celebrated persons born in Vienne are the poet Claudian and pope Guy, surnamed

* De Bello Gallico, lib. vii. § 9.
† Lib. iv. cap. i. § 9.
‡ Lib. ii. cap. 10.
§ Lib. iii. cap. 4.

Clement the Fourth. Now the capital of a prefecture, it holds some rank among the manufacturing towns in France; it has cloth manufactories and iron works, and carries on besides a considerable trade in leather. St. André, a populous burgh, derives great profit from the sale of liqueurs and light sparkling white wines. Saint Marcellin, well built and agreeably situated, is enriched by the produce of the vineyards.

Department of the Ardèche.

The Ardeche has given its name to the department which it waters, and bounds on the south near its confluence with the Rhone; the same department is limited on the east, in the direction of its length, by the Rhone, on the west by the chain of Mezin;* Mounts Sone and Tanargue form part of the frontiers. Thus within the same limits was almost wholly contained the ancient province of Vivarais, which long before the invasion of the Romans, was called Helvia. In conformity to an etymology, that may be admitted, because it accords with the nature of the country, the ancient name of the province might signify *a road on the mountains.** But etymologists have certainly gone too far in deriving the name of the Ardeche from the same root as the Latin word *ardere* (to burn). To suppose that the mountains of Auvergne and Vivarais, almost all of which bear the marks of igneous origin, emitted flames when man inhabited these regions or other neighbouring countries, is to indulge in conjectures wholly at variance with facts. Not the least important of these facts may be considered the discovery of the fossil bones belonging to different animals under the basaltic jets near Issoire in Auvergne,—bones in which nothing has been found to announce the existence of man at the epoch when the basalt covered the place where these remains were deposited. If the ancient names of certain mountains accord with the notion of their ignition; it is because they have preserved their heat, smoke or other signs of incalescence, long after the flames have disappeared. Thus basalt,‡ an eastern word, signifies

Etymology of the word Helvia.

Volcanic mountains. Privas.

* Mezin from Mezing, a word in old Patois, which signifies the middle.

† In ancient Celtic languages, *hel* and *bel* signify elevation, height, *via* like *weg*, a way or road.

‡ In Arabic *bashalt*.

burnt stone, and the ancients applied that name to a rock, which they did not consider lava, and which in reality differs from the basalt of geologists.

The physical geography of the same department is perhaps less understood than that of any other in France. It owes its distinct character to the volcanic conflagrations, of which it has been the theatre, and to the decomposition of the rocks in many parts of the granite and calcareous mountains. The crater of Saint-Leger, not far from the banks of the Ardeche, exhales like the grotto del Cane near Puzzuoli, a great quantity of carbonic acid. The Pont de la Beaume, a volcanic jet, exhibits a mass of basalt, arranged in the form of prisms, resting on a range of larger prisms, placed vertically the one beside the other. But the most curious part of the hill is a natural grotto, composed and surmounted by prisms regularly fashioned into an arch, as if by the hand of man. The mountain of Chenavari rests on a calcareous base, and is crowned by a volcanic summit, which forms a barrier of grey and red lava towards the south, and presents in the opposite direction the singular spectacle of a basaltic colonnade more than six hundred feet in length. At a greater distance northwards, a rock surmounted by prisms heaped horizontally, or inclined to the east, supports the ancient castle of *Rochemaure*, now in ruins, so called from the black colour of the stone. The burgh of Vals is celebrated for its mineral water; near it may be seen the famous Giants' road or causeway (Chaussée des Geans), formed by many basaltic prisms that rise above both banks of the Volant. A cataract near the bridge of Bridon falls in foam from similar rocks. It is impossible to behold these objects with indifference; but others not less remarkable, are situated in the same department, such are the majestic collection of prisms near the bridge of Rigodel, the stupendous causeway formed by colossal pillars near the village of Colombier, lastly, the *Gueule d'Enfer*, a waterfall that rushes from a granite rock more than five hundred feet in height. These volcanic mountains have been frequently described; indeed it may be unnecessary to enumerate all the places in the

Pont de la Beaume.

Chenavari.

Rochemaure.

Giants road.

Gueule d'Eufer.

BOOK CXLII.

Bridge of Arc.

same part of the country,* mentioned by different authors, whose works bear the enticing title of natural curiosities or wonders of nature. Among the places not of volcanic origin, the natural bridge of Arc above the Ardeche has given rise to much speculation. It is formed by a semicircular arch a hundred and ninety-five feet wide, and ninety or ninety-five in height. The opening in the arch has been made through a calcareous rock, that extends across a fruitful and romantic valley. The geographers who mention it, suppose it a rupture made in the rock by the waters of the river, and finished by the hand of man, because, since the time of the Roman conquest, it has been used as a passage from the Cevennes to Vivarais.† But so large a rock, instead of having been perforated by the river, must have determined its course in a different direction. It is evident from the rugged parts above the same natural work, that it never has been perfected by manual labour. It is also certain that the Ardeche has not enlarged it, for the arch exhibits no marks of aqueous abrasion; the bridge must therefore be considered a real cavern, like other caverns in the same rock, formed by natural decay on the banks of the river; indeed its tendency to decay serves as a character for that sort of limestone, hence in the language of geology, it is termed *cavernous*.‡ The grottos near the burgh of Vallon, may be attributed to the same causes, they are remarkable for the singular and varied forms which their stalactites present; the rocks near Ruoms, on the other hand, are not less remarkable for their regular shapes, either cubical or pyramidical.

The geologist and the painter may find ample scope for their respective pursuits in the same department, but

* See Histoire naturelle des provinces meridionales de France, by the Abbé Gerault Soulavie; Recherches sur les Volcans eteints du Vivarais, by Faujas de Saint-Fond; Institutions geologiques, by Breislak.

† See the Itineraire complet du royaume de France, 5th edition, 1828; Dictionaire de geographie physique, by Girault de Saint Fargeaue, 1827; the Merveilles et les Beauties de la Nature en France, by Depping, 1822.

‡ Consult on the same subject, the notice inserted in the Memoires de la Societé d'histoire naturelle de Paris, tom. ii. entitled, Notice geognostique sur la langue de terre comprise entre le Rhone, l'Ardeche, &c.

several places well worthy of being visited, are almost unknown. Such is the domain of Ubas, occupying a circumference of more than seven leagues. It lies in the western extremity of the department, in the district of *Saint-Etienne-de-Lug-Dares*, at eight leagues north-west of the Argentiere, and surrounded on the north, the east and the south by the hills, which rise gradually, and form the mountain of Prasancoupe, about 3250 feet above the level of the Mediterranean; the name it bears signifies the *cup or crater of the meadows*, so called most probably on account of the fruitful meadows below it. The same volcano, from the abundance of its lava, may be considered the most important in Vivarais. If the geologists, who examined the neighbouring country, had observed it, the first rank would not have been assigned to the volcano of Loubaresse. The thermal springs that rise in the neighbourhood, account for the wealth in the village of Saint Laurent; if it were not for the reputation in which the waters are held, it might remain deserted in its narrow and sterile valley. The scene changes from the summit of Prasoncoupe, and lands covered with woods, meadows, abundant streams and cultivated fields, form a contrast to the arid and dismal valley. The worthy descendant of the ancient family,* to whom the domain belongs, has set an example that the landlords in the department would do well to imitate;—he has improved agriculture by introducing the methods adopted in different cantons in Switzerland and Alsace, and by crossing the oxen with the best herds of Berne. It were to be wished that such improvements were generally adopted in a country, that appears to have made little or no progress in agricultural knowledge since the thirteenth century. The domain, like all the western and northern part of the department, abounds in granite and sandstone; it contains besides rich iron ore, coal, clay well adapted for earthern ware, and the finest kaolin for porcelain.

Domain of Ubas. Volcano of Prasancoupe.

The summit of another volcano, the Loubaresse, commands the valley of Valgorge; a thousand peaks, its fruit-

Loubaresse

* The family of Agrain des Ubas has possessed it since the eleventh century.

BOOK CXLII.

ful fields, and the numerous contrasts between cultivated nature and romantic scenery, render it the most picturesque in Vivarais. It was in the castle of Valgorge on the most fertile part of the valley, that the Marquis of La Fare composed the poems on which his celebrity depends. Although the mines of argentiferous lead are now exhausted in Argentiere, it finds in its silks and manufactures more resources than ever it obtained in the works from which the name of the town has been derived. The burgh of Saint-Andeol on the south-east, above the banks of the Rhone, contains twice as many inhabitants as Argentiere, but the latter is the chief town in the subprefecture. It has been affirmed that the burgh was called after saint Andeol, who suffered martyrdom in the third century. There is a rock in the neighbourhood from which the Tourne, a fountain of cold mineral water escapes; it flows below a religious monument of the Gauls, the ruins of a temple, which appears to have been consecrated to the god Mithra. Most of the *basso-relievos* are nearly effaced, but one of them, perhaps the most important, remains in a good state of preservation. It is not difficult to distinguish a bull with a dog biting it on the neck, and a man holding it by a rope; a radiated figure above the same group represents the sun. Monuments of a similar kind may be seen in the royal museum of antiquities at Paris, they have been illustrated by French antiquaries. Alps, formerly the *Alba Helviorum*, the ancient capital of Helvia, was ruined by the Goths; it is now a mere village. The inhabitants of Villeneuve de Berg in the vicinity, rear an immense number of silk worms. The same town was the birthplace of Court de Gebelin, the greatest philologist of the last century, and the one, whose researches on language and ancient monuments are the most valuable. Vivien on the banks of the Rhone contains two thousand souls, it was formerly the capital of Vivarais.

Argentiere.

Temple of Mithra.

Villeneuve de Berg.

The granite and gneiss that bound the department on the north-west, the psammites and schistus that rest on these rocks, the limestone that descends in a parallel direction, and the volcanic belt that terminates suddenly in the basalt of Rochemaure at the banks of the Rhone, as if the river

had been a barrier to the torrents of lava, meet near Aubenas, where alluvial deposits occasioned by the erosion of the valleys which intersect these lands, form a very fruitful soil. It might be said, judging not only from the walnut, chestnut and mulberry trees, but also from the vineyards and crops, that few parts of France are so productive; thus Aubenas, a town of 3500 inhabitants, is the mart for the chestnuts and wines in Ardeche; a fair to which many persons resort, is held twice a-year in the same place for the sale of silk. Privas, the capital of the department, is not remarkable for its edifices, indeed, with the exception of a prison, it possesses none of any consequence; the importance of the town depends on the commerce and industry of the inhabitants. The village of Cornas and the burgh of Saint-Peray, at no great distance from the Rhone, are encompassed with fruitful and valuable vineyards. The course of the river leads to Tournon, which communicates with Tain on the opposite bank by means of a suspension bridge, that is neither so light nor so elegant as others in the neighbourhood of Vienne. An old castle rises above the town, it was built in the time of Charles Martel; it is at present only remarkable for the view it commands—a view extending along both banks of the Rhone; on the right and in the department of Drome are seen the famous hills of Hermitage, the vineyards of *Côte-rotie Brune* and *Côte-rotie Blonde;* the trade in these wines is principally carried on at Tournon. The ruins of an old bridge are situated on the Doubs in the neighbourhood, according to different writers, it was built in the time of Cæsar. The first iron wire bridge made in France, was erected in the small town of Andance. Annonay, well known for its fine paper, is the most industrious town in Ardeche, a pre-eminence, owing partly to its position at the confluence of the Cance and Deume. It possesses in addition to the paper mills, cloth, silk and cotton manufactories, bleach-fields, wax and leather works. The population amounts to 8000 individuals. It was the birthplace of the virtuous Boissy d'Anglas and of Mongolfier, the inventor of the balloon and the hydraulic ram. Two monuments raised to the memory of these distinguished men, attest the gratitude of their fellow

Privas.

Annonay.

BOOK CXLII.

citizens, but reflect little honour on the artists by whom they were executed.

Character of the people.

The department has produced several great men, but it cannot be remarked without pain that the mass of the people both in the country and in the towns are as uncultivated as their mountains, and as superstitious as the ancient Helvians from whom they are sprung. The climate of the same department is very different in different places. A fructifying heat is felt on the banks of the Rhone; the valleys round Saint-Julien and Annonay are temperate, but in the Cevennes on the west, winter lasts eight months, and the ground is often covered with deep snow.

Climate.

Department of Upper Loire.

Coterminous to Ardeche, and traversed by the same mountainous chains, the department of Upper Loire exhibits the same volcanic phenomena, as wild scenery, as romantic beauties. Mezin, a mountain of igneous origin, is adorned with majestic columns of basalt; it rises to the height of 2600 feet above the granite base. The volcanoes called the *Tartas*, the *Infernels* and *Mouns Caou* or Mont Chaud are more remarkable than the others situated on the same line as the Mesin.* Basaltic jets appear to have obstructed the course of the Loire at Goudet and at Solignac, and of the Allier at Monistrol, Prades and Chasez. The volcanic rocks take at Pradelles a north-west direction, they may be discovered near Lonjac, Poulaquet, Voute, Brioude and Blesle; the lava that flowed from them, appears to have been broken or cut by rivers. Conical masses of scoria rise in several places above the basaltic columns; the Bard near Allegre, perhaps the most remarkable of these masses, reaches to the height of 3737 feet; it is said that the marks of a lake long since dried, are still apparent on its truncated summit. The site which the lake of Bouchet occupies, may be considered

* A very apposite remark, which has been already made by different writers, may be here repeated; it is that the names of the volcanoes in Vivarais and Velay are not of Roman origin. Cæsar observed that there was a great analogy between the dialect spoken in these countries and the Latin, as if the latter was derived from it. Thus it is easy to account for the resemblance which the names mentioned in the text, bear to words of the purest Latinity. *Tartas* or *Tartarou*, *Infernels* or *Infernes*, may serve to recall the Latin words *Tartarus* and *Infernus*. *Coueron* is not unlike *coquere* (to boil,) *Tanargue* resemble *Tonitru agger* (the field of thunder).

an extinct crater; it is about ninety feet in depth, and nine hundred in diameter. But the most singular volcanic rocks are those of Corneille, rising like an enormous cube in the neighbourhood of Puy, the rock of Polignac covered with the ruins of an ancient castle, Saint Michel, exhibiting the appearance of a round tower, and *Roche Rouge* at a league and a half from Brives, a volcanic pyramid more than a hundred feet high, encompassed with a belt of red granite seven feet in breadth, and mixed with granite blocks on the surface from the base to the summit,—a curious example of the action of subterranean fire by which the products have been overturned. If it were certain that the hand of man had not contributed to the regularity of a *natural temple*, it might merit particular notice; a current of lava near the village of Goudet on the banks of the Loire, has assumed the most capricious forms; a round tower is terminated by a conical roof, and the peri-style of an edifice is supported with columns thirty feet in breadth and a hundred and eighty in height.

Mineral products.

Different mineral substances are found in the primitive and secondary lands; granite, serpentine and marble are rendered useful, excellent mill-stones are extracted from the beds of sandstone near Marsanges, Navogne and Retournac; the best coals are worked at Frugeres, but the department possesses enough of other sorts to furnish an annual supply of 11000 chaldrons for a period of 600 years. Sulphureted antimony is found in strata or in veins in the district of Brioude, and several places abound apparently in sulphureted lead.* One or two remarks on the principal towns may enable the reader to estimate the commerce and industry of a department from which more than three thousand individuals migrate every year, and find employment as tradespeople or workmen in the different French towns.

Puy.

Puy, the ancient capital of Velay, is finely situated in a picturesque valley, watered by the Loire and by two small rivers, the Borne and Dolaison; it stands at the base of Mount Anis, which stretches to the volcanic rocks of Cor-

* See the Description Statistique du Department de la Haute-Loire, by M. Deribier de Cheisac, and the Description Geognostique des Environs du Puy-en-Velay, by Bertrand Roux.

neille. The streets are so steep that the noise of carriages or wagons is never heard; the lava with which they are paved, and with which the houses are built, gives it a gloomy and dismal appearance. There is no town in France where religious ceremonies are more strictly observed, or where more time is lost in unnecessary and tiresome forms. Saint Michel, an eminence in the lower part of Puy, is commanded by a church to which the people ascend by a stair of 260 steps cut in the solid rock. The cathedral stands in the highest part of the town, and a lofty perron of 118 steps leads to it. The situation of the building, its architecture and the height of the pyramidical steeple, render it one of the most majestic Gothic monuments in Europe. The front is adorned with a sort of mosaic, and the interior appears like a large chapel, in which the arches are formed by a junction of several cupolas. The most valuable relic is a miraculous image of the Virgin,—a small cedar wood statue, according to tradition, carved by the Christians of Mount Lebanon, and brought to France in the eighth century, but more probably a figure of Isis, which the pious crusaders mistook for the mother of Christ; at all events, it is begirt with fillets after the manner of Egyptian statues. But as it has been long an object of veneration, it may be considered a Christian relic; several popes and eight or ten kings of France have prostrated themselves before it. The tomb of Duguesclin, which adorns the church of the ancient Dominicans, the theatre, supposed to be an ancient temple of Diana, and the museum of natural history are not unworthy of notice. Cardinal Polignac, the author of the Anti-Lucretius, and Julien the sculptor were born in the town; now the capital of a department, it exports several manufactures, particularly different sorts of lace, and it has for more than a century furnished horse-bells to the wagoners and muleteers in the south of France. The neighbouring village of Expailly is known to mineralogists from a stream, in which sapphires, garnets and hyacinths are found. Among the ruins of the ancient castle at Polignac, raised on the site of a temple, consecrated to the Celtic Apollo, may be seen the head of the god, carved on a disc of white

Image of the Virgin.

marble, serving as a cover to the aperture of the cave from which the Gallic divinity used to deliver his prophecies. The small town of Crapone in the same district carries on a trade in cloth and lace. Yssengeaux has its lead mines, it is besides the seat of an agricultural society. Brioude, at no great distance from the Allier, is situated in a fruitful district.

Department of Lozere.

A chain extends from east to west, and the highest part of it, or the Lozere gives its name to a department. The mountains of Margeride cross it from south-east to north-west, and the heights of Aubrac are divided into two principal branches. Three rivers, the Allier, the Lot and the Tarn rise in the same country; they are embellished with waterfalls, rugged rocks and wild scenery that attest the desolation occasioned by subterranean fires. The Pas de Souci on the Tarn, is formed by two hills almost touching each other at their summits; it might seem as if they waited for the hand of man to unite them, and thus erect a bridge 1800 feet in height; in one place the waters are ingulphed between two immense rocks, the Aiguille and Roc-Sourde, repelled from these barriers, they resume their course, and make the air re-echo with their noise. The abundance of water renders the department humid, and the mountains lengthen the duration of winter. Spring and summer are generally rainy seasons; storms are not uncommon in summer, and the heat is rarely oppressive. The soil does not produce enough of corn or wine for the consumption of the inhabitants. The wealth of the country consists in mines, which yield silver, antimony and lead. Cattle and woollen stuffs form the two principal branches of commerce.

Pas de Souci.

Mende.

Mende, the capital, is situated in the centre of the department, the valley on which it stands, is intersected by a great many streams, that water the villas and country seats in the vicinity. The town is encompassed with ramparts, the streets are crooked, but adorned with several fountains; the cathedral is remarkable for the boldness of its steeples. The serge manufactured at Mende is exported into the north and south of Europe. Pope Urban the Fifth was

BOOK CXLII.

Chateauneuf de Randon.

born in the neighbourhood of the town, which, it has been affirmed, was the *Auderitum* of the Romans. Chateauneuf de Randon, a burgh on the heights towards the north-east of Mende, contains hardly 2,500 inhabitants, it was formerly a strong place and a town of some celebrity from the siege which the English maintained against Duguesclin. The Frenchman died beneath its walls, and the English general, who promised to surrender if he did not receive assistance within a certain time, laid his sword and the keys of the town on the coffin of his adversary. The same year in which that event took place, an act of heroism was achieved near the village of Luc on the eastern frontier of the department, by the ancestors of some Frenchmen now alive. The English had invaded Gevaudan and Vivarais with a considerable force; murder and desolation indicated their march, until it was suddenly impeded at the fort of Luc, which commands the road into Upper Auvergne. Two thousand men attempted to besiege it, but three brave knights, to whom the fief belonged in common, defended themselves so valiantly that they at last repelled the enemy.* The English, however, were ashamed of their defeat, they returned, and the three knights might have perished, had they not been unexpectedly assisted by ten of the most intrepid proprietors in the neighbourhood, by their means they gained a decisive victory.† The castle of Luc is still remarkable for its antiquity; according to ancient chroniclers and rural traditions, it was founded before the country was conquered by the Romans. Langogne, a small place of 2500 souls, possesses different cloth manufactories. The village of Bagnol-les-Bains is much frequented on account of its mineral waters. Marvejols, destroyed by the duke of Joyeuse, and rebuilt by Henry the Fourth, is a neat town with broad and straight streets. Florac in a narrow valley on the left of the Tarnon, surrounded with meadows and fruitful fields, derives little advantage from its situation.

Luc.

* The three knights were M. M. de Polignac, Bourbal de Choisinet, and d'Agrain des Ubas.

† These men were Malet de Borne, d'Apcier, Moranges, Malmont de Soulage, Modine, Durour, Balazuc, Vernon de Joyeuse, Longueville and Regletton.

Three streams rise on the eastern sides of the Cevennes; the Gardons of Anduse, Mialet and Alais, so named from the principal places they water. Their junction forms the Gard, also called the Gardon; in some places it loses itself in gravel pits, in others, destructive inundations make the labourer pay very dear for the pieces of gold it brings along with it. Alais, watered by one of the branches already mentioned, is considered a very ancient town; it suffered much during the *dragonnade** in the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth, but these injuries have been repaired; it is well built, has several manufactories, and carries on a considerable trade in raw and dressed silks. The impetuous streams of the Gard near the burgh of Remoulin, resound in a narrow pass, traversed by a majestic Roman aqueduct, which conducted the waters from the fountain of *Aure* to the mock sea-fights in the ancient *Nemausus*. Formed by three rows of arcades, it extends to the distance of 600 feet, and rises to the height of 160. The same monument is in excellent preservation, it is difficult to observe it without admiring the ancient Romans, who wiser than the moderns, employed their soldiers during peace in useful labours. Uzes or the ancient *Ucetia*, is surrounded with high hills; it was formerly the seat of a diocess, but that did not prevent the inhabitants from embracing the reformation in the sixteenth century. At present it is a place of some trade, the manufactures consist of hosiery, silks, pasteboard and paper. It was the native town of the learned Abauzit. Bagnols lies in a fruitful country on the banks of the Ceze; it may be considered on the whole an ill-built town, although a square encompassed with arcades forms an exception; it was the birthplace of Rivarol. A citadel built by Lewis the thirteenth may still be seen at Pont-Saint-Esprit; which is also remarkable for a fine bridge, almost half a mile in length, begun by St. Lewis, and finished in the reign of Philip the Fair. It may be observed that the same bridge rises at the place where the course of the Rhone is so rapid, that a spectator in a boat below it, has

Department of the Gard.

Alais.

Uzes.

Pont St. Esprit.

* The object of Lewis the Fourteenth was to compel the protestants to change their religion, to *dragoon* them into Catholicism; the expedition therefore still retains the name of dragonnade.

BOOK CXLII.

hardly time to observe the arches, which seem to recede from the view. Roquemaure on the right bank of the river, although small, is an industrious town; the inhabitants possess silk manufactories, brandy distilleries and hydraulic saws; they make 20,000 casks every year for the produce of the vineyards in the vicinity.

Nimes.

Nimes in a fruitful vale, encompassed with hills, is important as the capital of a prefecture, the seat of a diocess and a court of justice. Learned societies and numerous schools have been established in the town. The few streets that are straight or well built, are confined to the suburbs. Situated in a narrow enclosure, the air is only pure on the ramparts and glacis; these fine public walks are shaded with trees; the court of justice, a very elegant building, is the greatest ornament of the one, the other is embellished with modern houses, the hospital and the theatre. The cathedral contains the tombs of the cardinal de Bernis and the celebrated Flechier. But these edifices, creditable to any modern town, shrink into insignificance when compared with the monuments of the Romans. The *Square House*, a rectangular building, as high as it is broad, stands near the theatre; the front is equal to thirty-six feet, and the length to seventy. It was an ancient temple with Corinthian pillars, built by Adrian, and since repaired by two kings of France,—Lewis the Fourteenth and Lewis the Eighteenth.* The amphitheatre lately encumbered with rubbish, forms an elliptical enclosure of 1080 feet; it is surrounded with a hundred and twenty arcades, divided into two rows, the one above the other. It holds about 17,000 persons; bull-fights sometimes take place in the arena. A triumphal arch, called the gate of Cesar, is the ancient monument that was last discovered;† the northern gate is also of Roman construction. Many sculptures, basso relievos and ancient tombs are seen in the town. The *Tour Magne*, a seven-sided pyramid, rises beyond the walls; the base is about 245 feet in circumference. The Roman baths and the fountain of Diana retain their names to verify their antiquity. The temple consecrated to the

* In the year 1689 and in 1820.

† It was first observed in the year 1791.

same divinity, consists of several chapters, cornices and inscriptions. The foundation of the town is attributed to the Phoceans of Ionia. From the time it bore the name of *Nemausus* to the present day, Nimes has produced many distinguished men; among others, the emperor Antonine, Domitius Afer, the master of Quintillian, John Nicot, who first introduced tobacco into France, Bourguet the naturalist, Samuel Petit, the erudite Seguier, Saurin, Villars, John Fabre the protestant, whose father was condemned to the galleys on account of his religion, lastly, the learned but unfortunate Rabaud-Saint-Etienne. Nimes contains at present several manufactories, and carries on a considerable trade in the products of the department. The medicinal plants and others used in dying, collected by the peasants, form a lucrative branch of exportation; they may be seen in the markets of Amsterdam, Hamburgh and Lubeck.

Beaucaire.

Beaucaire, probably the ancient *Ugernum*, is situated at the distance of five leagues to the east of Nimes, on the banks of the Rhone, which separates it from Tarascon. The streets are narrow, but in other respects it is a well-built town. The commercial importance of Beaucaire depends principally on a fair, which lasts from the 22d to the 28th of July at midnight; during these six days, there is as much activity and confusion as at Leipsig when merchants repair to it from every part of the world. As the season of the fair approaches, the Rhone is covered with boats conveying the manufactures of Lyons, Germany and Switzerland; at the same period, vessels arrive at Toulon or Marseilles, laden with the merchandize of Italy, Spain and the Levant. A hundred thousand merchants repair from different points in Europe or the east to the fair; they are crowded in a town of ten thousand inhabitants. The houses can contain only a small part of the extra population, but the extensive meadows on the banks of the Rhone are covered with tents.

Aigues-Mortes.

Aigues-Mortes, a small town of 3000 inhabitants, situated in a marshy country, is no longer a port, although St. Lewis embarked there for his unfortunate expedition into Palestine. It derives its wealth from the immense salt

BOOK CXLII.

mines of Peccais, an arid and sandy district. Vigan, a small place at the western extremity of the department, is the capital of a subprefecture; it is watered by the Arre, and only worthy of notice as the birthplace of the chevalier d'Assas. The bronze statue that serves to perpetuate the memory of the same person, was exhibited in the Louvre in 1828, it now adorns his native town.

Products of the department.

The department of Gard does not abound in metals or minerals; it contains, however, antimony, coal and lignites, which yields sulphate of iron and alum. The grain harvests are insufficient to supply the consumption, but the vineyards yield three times the quantity of wine that is used in the country. The excess, together with raw silk, olive oil, wool and other articles already mentioned, make up the exports of the department.

Department of Herault.

The department of Herault is still poorer than the last in mineral substances. The people work coal, marble, salt and lignites which, under the name of fossil ashes, is used as a manure. It produces more grain than it consumes, and the great excess of wine, dried fruits, liqueurs, perfumes and oil, form exports of considerable value. The river which gives its name to the department, rises in the Cevennes, at the base of the Egoual and Esperon; it is only navigable the distance of three leagues, from the burgh of Bessan to its embouchure. The course of the same river, from its origin to its junction with the Ergue, may guide us in the description of the country.

Gange.

Gange, a town on the left bank, of four thousand inhabitants, is surrounded with country houses, and commanded by an ancient castle. The fairy grotto (*la Baouma de las Doumaiselas*), in which the sombre windings are covered with magnificent stalactites, is situated in the neighbourhood. At Aniane, a place of less importance than the last, may be seen the ruins of the first convent, built by St. Benedict. Ascending the Ergue, and leaving on the left Clermont de Lodeve or Clermont-l'Herault, peopled by six thousand inhabitants, who export cloth to the Levant, and carry on a trade in leather and verdegris, we may arrive at Lodeve, the ancient *Luteva*, the metropolis of a subprefecture, an ill-built town, encompassed with walls, and situated in a fruitful

Lodeve.

valley. The inhabitants are industrious, coarse cloths are the principal manufacture.

Montpellier.

A very bad road through a wild country leads from Lodeve to Montpellier. The last town stands on a hill from which the magnificent view stretches to the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees. Squares adorned with fountains, no broad streets, but well built houses, a spacious glacis, the Peyrou, a fine walk which terminates at an aqueduct, formed by two rows of arcades, placed above each other, the church of St. Peter, the residence of the prefect, and the exchange, a very elegant edifice, render it perhaps one of the finest towns in the south of France. The sciences are instructed with zeal, and cultivated with success; it possesses an university, a library containing many valuable manuscripts, an excellent botanical garden, an observatory, several scientific societies, schools of music and painting, an anatomical theatre, and a celebrated school of medicine, founded in the twelfth century by Arabian physicians expelled from Spain, but received and protected by the counts of Montpellier. It is indebted to M. Fabre, the worthy pupil of David, for a very valuable collection of paintings both as to their number and selection. It has produced many celebrated men in different branches of knowledge, such as Barthez, Broussonet, Fizes, Fouquet and Baumes in medicine, Peyronie the founder of the surgical school at Paris, Rondelet the naturalist, Cambon, who distinguished himself in troublous times by putting order into the finances, Cambaceres, whose talent has never been disputed, and who rose to the first offices of the empire, Roucher, the author of the Months, the celebrated painter Bourdon, and Vien the master of David. It is unnecessary to describe in detail the antiquities of Montpellier,—one or two remarks may suffice. The marble chair on which a medical professor sits, is an ancient monument, that was found in the amphitheatre at Nimes. Although the names of the ancient and modern buildings are the same, it might have been as well that the chair had remained in the ancient; but the same remark is not applicable to an old bronze bust of Hippocrates, now placed in the hall of the celebrated school. The walk of Peyrou terminates in a six-sided

Celebrated men.

Antiquities and curiosities.

BOOK CXLII.

pavilion; a basin near it is supplied by the aqueduct already mentioned, and the water falls from it in cascades over artificial rocks. The botanical garden at no great distance from these places, cannot be observed without interest; it was the first of the kind in France, it was formed for the purpose of naturalizing plants remarkable for their rarity, beauty or utility. It contains not less than eight thousand plants, and the manner in which it is laid out, renders it an agreeable walk. The admirers of Young's Night Thoughts may repair to a thick shade and obscure vault, which contains the tomb of his daughter Narcissa. Commerce and the useful arts are cultivated as well as the sciences, the manufactures of Montpellier consist in cottons, muslin and cloth, verdetum and other chemical products. The hospitals and other charitable houses are well regulated; the mount of piety cannot be too much commended, such institutions, notwithstanding their name, are in most places usurious and fatal to the poorer classes, but in one town at least, their philanthropic purpose has been preserved, and money is advanced on pledges to the poor without interest.

Botanical garden.

Lunel.

Lunel, a town of five hundred inhabitants, near the eastern limits of the department, is situated in a country famous for muscadine wines. A cavern in the neighbourhood has been frequently visited by geologists;* in an alluvial deposit, the fossil bones of different graminivorous animals, such as wild boars, stags, horses, oxen and others no longer found in our climates, as hippopotami and camels, are mingled with the remains of lions, tigers, bears and hyenas; it is proved too by the marks of teeth on the bones, that the former have been devoured by the latter. The district of Frontignan is about six leagues distant to the west of Montpellier, the wines rival those of Lunel. Cette, which ought perhaps to be written Sette, because it stands upon *Mount Setius*, a height mentioned by Pomponius Mela, guards the entrance into the canal of the South. Built in the form of an amphitheatre between the sea and the marsh of Thau, that yields a great quantity of

Cette.

* See the Memoirs by M. Marcel de Serres.

salt, it possesses a fine harbour, accessible to ships of war, contains ten thousand inhabitants, and carries on an extensive trade. Invalids repair to it every year on account of the sea and sand baths. The vertical fissures in the heights near it, are partly filled with transition deposits, cemented by the fossil bones of birds, quadrupeds and reptiles.

Beziers.

Beziers rises on a hill that commands a view of a rich valley, where the sad foliage of the olive is united with the verdant leaves of the mulberry, where gardens, orchards, vineyards and country houses extend on both banks of the Orb. In a different direction, may be seen the country watered by the canal of the south. The town was the birthplace of Mairan the astronomer; it is a place of great antiquity, it was the *Bœterræ* of the Romans; it has been ruined by the Visigoths, the Saracens and Charlemagne; it reached the height of its splendour before it was sacked in the thirteenth century by Arnauld, the abbot of Citeaux, during the crusade against the Albigenses. While the monk was about to storm the town, his followers asked him by what signs they might know the catholics,—*Kill all*, said the bigot, *let God discover his own*. Agde, formerly *Agatha*, stands near the sea at the base of a volcanic height; it was founded by a Greek colony; the harbour is advantageously situated for the coasting trade, it possesses a hundred and twenty small vessels, it is peopled by eight thousand inhabitants. Pezenas, which Pliny calls *Piscenæ*, rises on the north-east of Beziers, on the banks of the Herault; the inhabitants carry on a trade in woollen stuffs and in the excellent wines for which the district is celebrated.

Department of the Tarn.

The Tarn waters on the western sides of the Espinouse and Black mountains, a poorer department than the one that has been described. The people employed themselves formerly in cultivating pastel, but now that the superiority of indigo is acknowledged, the profits arising from the culture of the plant are much reduced. The country is in many places covered with forests, and the timber is exported and used in building; the pastures are abundant, the grain and wine harvests are more than sufficient for the wants of the people. Coal is the only mineral substance

BOOK CXLII.

of any importance, and manufacturing industry is principally confined to cotton and woollen stuffs.

Alby.

Alby on the banks of the Tarn, perhaps the worst built archiepiscopal city in France, is the native town of the unfortunate Lapeyrouse and the brave general Haupoult. The walls in the inside of the cathedral are adorned with old paintings. The building itself is remarkable for boldness and elegance. The Lice, a public walk, is formed by a fine terrace commanding a view of an extensive and fruitful plain. *Albiga*, the Latin name of the town, proves it to have been the principal city of the *Albigi*; it was afterwards the capital of Albigeois, a province devastated in the twelfth century by the fanatical Simon de Montfort, and persecuted at a latter period, during the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth. Castres, founded in 647 on the site of a Roman camp, may be considered the most important town in the department, both on account of its manufactures and the number of inhabitants. The residence of the subprefect is the ancient episcopal palace, a very elegant edifice built after the plan of Mansard. The Agout divides the town into two parts, which communicate with each other by means of two stone bridges. It has produced several distinguished men, among others, Thoyras Rapin the author of a history of England, Andrew Dacier the academician, and the learned Sabatier.

Trembling rock.

The Roquetta, a place in the vicinity, so called from the decomposed rocks which cover it, is visited by strangers on account of *the Trembling Stone* and *the grotto of St. Dominick*. The trembling stone, a mass consisting of 360 cubic feet, has been supposed to weigh 600 hundredweights; it resembles an egg flattened at one end, and placed on its smaller extremity; it rests near the edge of a large rock on the declivity of a hill; any one may easily make it vibrate, and when once put in motion, the vibrations are repeated eight or nine times.

Grotto of St. Dominic.

The grotto that has been called after the founder of the Dominicans, to whom it served as a retreat, is situated at the base of the hill, below the trembling stone; it consists of subterranean galleries about 4200 feet in length, by sixty or seventy in breadth. The inner surface of the walls are formed by rounded rocks, heaped above each other in many places with so much regularity that they

might be supposed to have been the work of art, not of nature.* Alby and Castres are the two most important towns in the department, the others are comparatively insignificant. Gaillac rises on the right bank of the Tarn, at the place where it begins to be navigable; the inhabitants find employment in building boats or in making casks, and they carry on a considerable trade in the brandy and wines of the neighbourhood. The village of Lombers is mentioned in history; it was the place where a council assembled in 1176, whose decision was a signal for the crusade against the Albigenses, and for the murders committed in Languedoc. The small town of Lavaux possesses cotton and silk manufactories. Bruguiere, the capital of a district, contains four thousand inhabitants; it is situated near the Thauré, a small river which loses itself in subterranean cavities, and leaves a part of its bed, equal in length to more than eight hundred yards, always dry. The small town of Soreze, peopled by 2500 souls, enjoyed some celebrity in past times on account of a college.

Department of the Upper Garonne.

The canal of the South passes through the department of Upper Garonne, a department bounded on the south by the lofty summits of the Pyrenees, and watered by the Tarn, the Arriege, the Garonne and not less than fourteen streams. The soil is rich and fruitful, the forests supply the inhabitants with naval timber; abundant pastures account for the number of the herds. From the mildness of the climate, and the favourable exposure of many hills, the vine has been planted in a great part of the country. The wines it is true, may not be of the best quality, but the quantity is so great that two-thirds of it are consumed out of the department. The mineral products are various, but not very useful; two salt springs, the mineral and thermal waters of Encausse, Barthe, and Bagneres-de-Luchon form an exception.

The Tarn which crosses the northern part of the department, leads to Villemar, the capital of a district, a small, ill-built town peopled by 6000 individuals, and situated near the confluence of the Save and Garonne. Grenade, a neat

* See the Encyclopedie Methodique, Tom. III.

BOOK CXLII.

and clean town, although consisting of brick houses, was the birthplace of Cazales.

Toulouse.

Toulouse, five leagues above the last place, on the banks of the Garonne, was the ancient city of the *Tolsates*, the dominant tribe of the *Tectosages*, who had no inconsiderable share in the distant expeditions conducted by Bellovesus, Sigovesus and Brennus. The capital of the kingdom of the Visigoths during several centuries, it became afterwards the capital of the country governed by the counts of Toulouse, and continued so until Languedoc was united to France. The numerous monuments that adorned it, when it was classed among the most important Roman settlements, are now almost wholly destroyed; none can be mentioned except the remains of a small amphitheatre, and a single ancient tomb in the cloister of the old church of the Augustines. Some of the edifices are admired, several modern houses are not inelegantly built; but although a large town, it contains nothing which indicates its ancient splendour. Brick buildings are too numerous, and the squares, with the exception of St. Cyprian, are deficient in regularity. The broad quays give the town an imposing aspect, the Garonne divides it into two equal parts, and a magnificent bridge terminating in a triumphal arch, was raised after the plans of Mansard. It is encompassed with walls flanked by two old towers; and nine gates lead to different parts of the city. The townhouse, called the *Capitole*, is an old building with a fine modern front; the portraits of different persons born in Toulouse are placed in the interior. We may mention those of Cujas the lawyer. Fermat the mathematician, Campistron the tragic poet, and Clemence Isaure, who founded in 1323 the college of Gay-Savoir. The choir is the only part of the cathedral, which is finished; a fountain adorned with basso-relievos rises near it. The principal institutions in the town are an university, a school of medicine and surgery, a botanical garden, a school of artillery, an academy of the fine arts with a collection of paintings, and a royal cannon foundery. Most of the buildings were more or less injured on the sixteenth of April 1816, by the explosion of a powder magazine.

Antiquities

Capitole.

The road to Carcassone crosses a fruitful valley, and passes through the small town of Ville Franche, the capital of a district. Muret on a plain at the confluence of the Louge and Garonne, is a place of considerable industry, the people are employed in making porcelain, or in manufacturing coarse cloth. It is celebrated in French history on account of the siege which Simon de Montfort maintained against the king of Arragon, who was killed in a sally. The same town was the birthplace of the priest Vigilantius; he flourished during the fourth century, and attempted in vain to reform the abuses that had crept into the church. Saint Gaudens on the left bank of the river, is the mart for an extensive trade with Spain. Saint Bertrand de Comminges stands on the ruins of *Lugdunum Convenarum*, formerly an important town, but hardly containing at present 800 inhabitants, they export marble vases, statues and bas-reliefs into different parts of France. The mausoleum of the holy bishop whose name it bears, serves as an ornament to the church. At the distance of a league beyond St. Beat, which a strong dike protects against the inundations of the Garonne, the traveller leaves the valley watered by the river, and enters another on which *Bagneres de Luchon* is situated; at present indeed Bagneres hardly deserves the name of a town, but it may soon do so, if the population continue to increase as it has done of late years. It resembles a triangle, and from the three angles extend as many public walks; the one is planted with planes, the other with sycamores, and the third with lime trees; the last or the most northern leads to the baths, and is consequently the most frequented. The public baths may be compared to the finest of the kind in Europe; the structure itself has the appearance of a castle. The origin of the watering place does not appear to be very ancient, although it is certain that the baths were known to the Romans;* altars and votive inscriptions have been discovered at different periods. The vale of Luchon is broad in the neighbourhood of Bagneres, and laid out in rich meadows

Muret.

Saint Gaudens.

Bagneres de Luchon.

* They were first called *Aquæ Convenarum*, and afterwards *Aquæ Balneariæ Luxonienses*.

BOOK CXLII.

and cultivated fields, which yield often two harvests in the same year; numerous herds and flocks are reared in the same part of the country. Mountain passes, fragrant with aromatic flowers, torrents broken by cataracts, the peak of Maladetta, covered with eternal snow, and situated on the crest of the Spanish Pyrenees, give a lively interest to the excursions round Bagneres. But the stranger is often saddened in the midst of such magnificent scenery by the sight of beings as hideous from the disease of goitres with which they are affected, as from its invariable attendant,—moral degradation; they are the true *Parias* of the French Pyrenees, all the other inhabitants, men, women and children, look on them with disgust, and condemn them to the lowest occupations. Wealth and cleanliness, the companions of industry, tend happily by their progress to diminish the number of these unfortunate persons.

Department of Aude.

Although the mountains are arid, that extend from the summits of the Pyrenees to the canal of the South, although the Black Mountains, which rise on the north, and depend on the chain of the Cevennes, are unfruitful, the agricultural products in the department of Aude, are more than sufficient for the wants of the people. The principal river which waters it, the canal which crosses it from west to east, and the Mediterranean which washes the coast, are perhaps the causes of its commerce, or have contributed at least to the activity and industry of the inhabitants. The mines yield comparatively little, but the iron works in the department are not without importance; the people are economical and frugal, consequently rich; indeed it has been ascertained that the average quantity of wealth belonging to each individual, is greater than in other departments; the country, however, might be still much improved.

Castel Naudary.

Sostomagus, one of the most ancient towns in southern Gaul, was ruined at the time the Goths invaded France; at a later period it was rebuilt and fortified by the same people, and as they were Arians, it bore the name of *Castrum Novum Arianorum*, which has since been changed into *Castel-Naudary*. Watered by the canal of the South, a

fine basin enclosed with broad embankments, and shaded with trees, serves as a harbour, and forms a public walk. Charitable institutions and places of industry are not wanting in the town, and the historical recollections connected with it are not without interest. It is known that the count of Toulouse was obliged to demolish the fortifications, when he made peace with Saint Lewis in the year 1229. The English burned it in 1355, it was rebuilt and enlarged about ten years afterwards, and it was below the ramparts that marshal Schomberg at the head of the troops under Lewis the Thirteenth, defeated the forces of Gaston d'Orleans, who was decapitated at Toulouse. Among the great men to whom it has given birth, we need only mention the learned and brave general Andreossy. It carries on at present no inconsiderable trade in woollen stuffs; the use of modern machinery has been introduced into the manufactories. The Aude divides Carcassone into two parts; the upper town is a wretched and almost deserted place encompassed with walls, and built on a rock, but the lower consists of broad and straight streets, it possesses a fine harbour and a canal adorned with public walks; among the buildings may be mentioned the cathedral, the exchange, the mansion-house and barracks. It was formerly famous for its cloths, it possesses still about forty manufactories, and the cloths are mostly destined for the Levant. Cesar mentions the town, and calls it *Carcaso*;* it was the birthplace of Fabre d'Eglantine. A triumphal arch may be seen on the banks of the Fresquel in the neighbourhood, it was erected to Numerian.

Castel-Naudary.

Carcassone

Limoux on the Aude contains within its walls twenty cloth and ratteen manufactories. The same river waters the small town of Alet, peopled with 1100 souls, and visited by strangers on account of the thermal springs. Narbonne celebrated under the name of *Narbo* 300 years before the vulgar era, and surnamed *Marcius* by the Roman consul, who founded a colony there a hundred and fifty years afterwards, is situated on the canal of Robine, which communicates with the Mediterranean by the Sigean marsh. The Gothic ca-

* De Bello Gallico, Liber III.

thedral is a very fine edifice, and the stranger may observe within its walls, and within the court of the former archiepiscopal palace, several Roman monuments in a good state of preservation.. It is the native town of Varro, a poet and a warrior, of the emperor Marcus Aurelius, of Fronton the orator, and Montfaucon the antiquary. The honey in the district forms a branch of exportation.

Department of the Eastern Pyrenees.

The eastern extremity of the Pyrenees gives its name to a department, watered by the Agly, the Tet and the Tech, which flow for the most part in an eastern direction. The climate is warm, indeed the temperature of winter might be mistaken for that of spring. A favourable exposure unfolds the vegetation of eastern countries; pomegranate trees serve as hedges, the fields are shaded with mulberry, olive and orange trees; juniper bushes, thyme rosemary grow on the desert lands or on the sides of mountains, and gentle breezes diffuse their fragrance. The vines warmed by the summer's heat yield a great quantity of grapes, and two-fifths of the wine are consumed out of the department; the best sorts are raised on the hills of Collioure, Salces and Rivesaltes. But the department is not exempt from disadvantages; during the summer season, droughts are not unfrequent, and the rivers, from the inclination of their channels, are left dry; in the rainy season, on the contrary, they inundate their banks, and deluge the plains. It may be also mentioned that the lands near the sea, formed by alluvial deposits, are little better than marshes, the exhalations that rise from them, render several districts very unhealthy, and their effect might be still more deleterious, if the air was not occasionally purified by a north-west wind, which the people call *Tramontane*, because it crosses the mountains of Corbieres, that extend in the department of Aude.

Perpignan.

Perpignan, the seat of a prefecture and a diocess, rises on the right bank of the Tet, near the Basse, a small river. It may be about two leagues from the sea, it stands at the base of a hill, and on the site of *Flavium Ebusum*, an ancient municipal city. The old fortifications and the works constructed according to the principles of Vauban were almost entirely rebuilt in the year 1823. The view from the ram-

parts extend over a magnificent plain, bounded by mountains, and commanded on the west by the snow covered peak of Canigou; in a different direction, several openings in the midst of fruitful hills, unfold the expanse of the Mediterranean. An inexhaustible spring flows at the base of a lofty citadel. The buildings worthy of notice are the barracks erected by Lewis the Fourteenth, they may contain about five thousand men, the church of St. John, the town-house, the court of justice and the exchange. The college, the library, the museum of natural history, and different seminaries are certainly creditable to the town. The royal sheep folds in the neighbourhood are perhaps the finest in France; it may be regretted that the improvements introduced into so important a branch of rural economy, have not been imitated in other parts of the country.

Elne on the left bank of the Tech, stands on the site of the ancient *Helena*, or the still more ancient *Illiberis*, a place of some celebrity, for Annibal encamped under its walls. Ceret, thinly peopled and encompassed with lofty walls, may be mentioned on account of a bridge perhaps more remarkable for boldness than any other in France; it rises to an extraordinary height, and consists of a single arch, in which the abutments are built on two rocks; the opening exceeds 150 feet. *Port-Vendre* near the frontier, a short way from Collioure, was a small harbour about the end of the eighteenth century, equal or rather inferior in point of population to Collioure; it owes its present importance to the Marshal de Mailly, who was then governor of Roussilon. He foresaw the advantages it might derive from its position; the harbour was rebuilt, a basin was dug, which may contain five hundred vessels, and at present Port-Vendre is a flourishing and well-built town, in which the market place is adorned with fountains and a marble obelisk a hundred feet in height.

Ceret.

Port-Vendre.

It is necessary to cross some ravines near the sources of the Tet, to arrive at the plains where the Ariege rises. The department watered by the last river, is covered with mountains, forests and pastures; two distinct climates are perceptible within its limits. The southern part, from the elevation of the soil, is exposed to great cold and excessive

Department of the Ariege.

BOOK CXLII.

heat, while the vallies on the north are mild and temperate. Numerous herds are reared on the same vallies, and the soil, although ill adapted for the vine, is very fruitful in corn. The number of iron works, and the quality of the steel made in the department, prove that the industrious inhabitants have availed themselves of the mineral riches in their country.

Foix.

The small town of Foix rises in the valley watered by the Ariege, near an ancient castle surmounted by three Gothic towers. The counts that bore the name of the town, appear in the brightest pages of French history, but the monuments of these times are passing away. The streets are narrow, the ancient castle is wholly deserted and falling into ruins; trade and industry correspond with the insignificance of the population. Tarascon stands in a very picturesque situation at the confluence of the Ariege and a torrent which descends from the valley of *Vic-d'Essos*. Ax is famous for fifty-three mineral and thermal springs of which the temperature varies from 72° to 167° of Fahrenheit. Pamiers in the north of the department is surrounded with canals fed by the Ariege, they serve to move many machines; the streets are straight and broad, the houses are well built. Foix retains its ancient title, but Pamiers surpasses it in every respect; it has lately been raised into the seat of a diocess. The *Puy du Till* stands at no great distance from Mirepoix, a small and neat town; the mountain is remarkable for the cavities contained in it, from which fresh and sometimes very violent currents of air escape in every season of the year; the people call the phenomenon, the *Vent du Pas*.

Saint Girons.

Saint Girons is the only other town worthy of notice in the department, it stands on the Salat, a small but rapid river, which sets in motion paper mills and different manufactories. Saint Lizier in the vicinity, formerly the seat of a diocess, claims vainly the rank of a town, it does not contain 1200 inhabitants, and, as if to afford an example of the vicissitudes in this lower world, the episcopal palace has been changed into an asylum for mendicants.

Department of the High Pyrenees.

The ancient country of Bigorre forms almost all the department, which derives its name from the highest part of

the Pyrenees. The plains are confined to the northern districts, the others are formed by thick forests and verdant vallies, mountains difficult of access, bold peaks, summits covered with glaciers, lakes fed by melted snows. The torrents or *gaves*, which fall in cataracts from the mountains, are the sources of the Adour, the Garonne and other rivers which water the department. He who travels from the confines of Gers to Mount Perda, the Mount Blanc of the department, passes through every climate in Europe; he may observe the vegetation changing gradually from the plants of temperate countries to those of hyperborean regions. No great quantity of corn is raised on the most fruitful lands, but they yield plenty of wine. An active race of men inhabit the mountains; their manner of life may recall the customs of pastoral tribes. The shepherds have their winter and summer residence; they choose the first in the low, and the other in the high vallies. Skilful in directing the course of the waters, they are thus enabled to enrich the meadows, which in the latter part of the year, afford nourishment to their cattle. "The same small stream," says Ramond,* "waters contiguous possessions, the one above the other. A few slates are the simple sluices by which the course of the water may be changed, and made to communicate with neighbouring canals, where, by the same means, they are directed from meadow to meadow, until they reach the lowest declivities which they are intended to fructify." While the different members of the family are engaged in cultivating the ground, one man conducts the flocks to the highest vallies, where natural pastures await them; if he cannot find any cave or shelter, he raises a rude cottage with stones and the branches of trees; in autumn, the sheep and cattle are brought down to the summer residence, which the family has left for the village. The shepherd passes the winter in solitude, and his flocks consume the food that has been prepared for them. He braves the rigours of the season,—snows, hurricanes and the overwhelming avalanche. His food consists principally of milk, but the cows are much inferior both in form and in size to those on the Alps.

* Voyages et observations faites dans les Pyrenees.

BOOK CXLII.

We shall commence with the towns in the northern part of the country; *Vic en Bigorre*, a small town on the right bank of the Lechex, is peopled by 3500 inhabitants; it carries on a trade in brandy and leather. Rabastens near the banks of a canal is the small town whose inhabitants were massacred without distinction of age or sex by the troops of Charles the Ninth, after the battle of Montcontour.

Tarbes.

Tarbes is situated above these places, on the banks of the Adour; the streets are regular, the houses are built of brick and marble. A cloudless sky, fresh and limpid streams contribute to the salubrity for which it is famed. It is the chief town and the mart of all the commerce in the department; many Spaniards repair to it for the purpose of purchasing cattle. The prefect resides in the ancient bishop's palace; the cathedral rises on the ruins of the castle of Bigorra; Maubourguet, a public walk in the centre of the town, adorned with trees, and encircled with coffee-houses or places of amusement, cannot be compared with the Prado beyond the walls. Tarbes stands probably on the site of the ancient city of the *Tarbelli*.

Bagneres de Bigorre is situated at five leagues to the south, and on the banks of the same river; it is the capital of a district, which many strangers visit every year on account of the mineral waters. It stands on the base of a hill covered with trees; walks extend from it along the fine valley of Campan and the banks of the Adour. Campan, a flourishing burgh, may contain about 4,500 inhabitants, it is a place of trade, the manufactures are paper and woollen stuffs. Extensive marble quarries and a grotto four hundred feet in depth, adorned with beautiful stalactites, are situated in the vicinity. Argeles, the chief town of a district, is only remarkable for its romantic position in a valley watered by the Gave d'Azum, which unites with the Gave de Pau. On the banks of the last river, and at the distance of five leagues below Argeles, Lourdes rises on a rock, commanded by a fortress, which was ceded to the English by the treaty of Bretigny, and afterwards changed into a state prison.

Campan.

Cauterets.

Cauterets, not far from the summits of the Pyrenees, is

situated near roaring cataracts and foaming streams; it is mentioned in history as the residence of Margaret of Valois, its celebrity depends chiefly at present on the mineral waters. The village of Saint Sauveur is visited on account of the sulphureous springs in the neighbourhood. The church in the small town of Luz, was originally a convent of the templars. The thermal springs of Bareges, to which more than 600 strangers repair, vary in temperature from 106° to 122° of Fahrenheit. The village is formed by a single street, consisting of eighty houses, a chapel, an hospital built by Lewis the Fifteenth for disabled soldiers, and lastly, by large baths. Although a pleasant summer residence, it is hardly habitable in winter, most of the inhabitants then repair to Luz, where they remain until the beginning of spring. The famous cataract of Gavarnie, more remarkable than any other in Europe, may be observed in the neighbourhood, it falls from the height of 1270 feet.

Department of the Lower Pyrenees.

Part of Navarre and the ancient principality of Bearn are included in the department of the Lower Pyrenees, the only remains of the kingdom, which Rome took from the grandfather of Henry the Fourth, and granted to Ferdinand king of Arragon. A new title, that of king of Navarre, was assumed by the French sovereigns, when a descendant of the house of Bearn mounted the throne of France. The territories of Soule and Labourd are situated in the same department. The Pyrenees do not occupy one half of the country, they have not the appearance of lofty mountains covered with eternal glaciers, but of heights crowned with forests, of fruitful and well peopled valleys. Hills planted with vineyards extend at their base, plains rich in corn line both the banks of the Gave de Pau, and the sandy lands on the north, still susceptible of much improvement, add to the varied products of the department. The Bidassoa bounds it on the west, and determines the line which separates the kingdoms of France and Spain. On the same river is situated the isle of Faisans or Conference, so called from the interview between Mazarin and Lewis de Haro, an interview that brought about the treaty by which Artois and Roussillon were ceded to France. Although the coasts watered by the Gulf of Gascony are not extensive,

BOOK CXLII.

the harbours situated on them, afford great advantages to the commerce of the department; the inhabitants are not solely occupied with agricultural labours, many of them are employed in different manufactories, and in working iron mines.

Pau.

When the Arabs, masters of the greater part of Spain, extended their devastations beyond the Pyrenees, a prince of Bearn marked with three stakes, the site of a castle, which was afterwards raised to impede their progress. The same edifice, built in the ninth century, was at one time a palace and a fortress. The people of Bearn called it *Paou*, which signifies a stake, and from the protection it afforded, houses were grouped round it in the tenth century; a town was thus formed, which increased and prospered under the government of good and enlightened princes. Such was the origin of Pau, a city built with some sort of elegance, near the extremity of the heights that command the fruitful valley watered by the Gave, which derives its name from the ancient capital of Bearn. A lofty bridge rises with the majesty of an aqueduct; it as well as the castle, a court of justice, and a public walk adorned with a fine fountain, are the principal ornaments in the town. Pau is renowned as the birthplace of Henry the Fourth, but it has produced Gaston de Foix, the celebrated duke of Nemours, Joan d'Albret, who, as queen of a petty state, acted an important part in French history, the viscount d'Orthès, who in Bayonne and on St. Bartholomew's day, spared the victims devoted by Charles the Ninth; it was also the native town of Peter Marca, the most learned prelate in the Gallican church, of Pardies the astronomer, and lastly, of the general, who accepted the Swedish throne, and renounced his country. It may be repeated that Henry the Fourth was born in the castle of Pau, which, during the revolution, was changed into a barrack, and after the restoration, into a royal palace. A large tortoise-shell, the cradle of the monarch, is preserved with almost religious veneration; other relics of the great and good king are kept with the same care. But Pau has more titles to celebrity than those arising from historical associations, it holds no mean place among the industrious towns in France; the manufactures consist of cloth, carpets

and woollen stuffs. Nay, situated above it, on the left bank of the Gave, is a place of some trade, it was the native town of Abbadie, a famous protestant theologian.

Oleron.

Oleron or *Oloron* on the right bank of the Gave d'Ossau, carries on a trade with Spain; it sends among other articles into that country, a great many boxwood combs made by machinery; it exports timber for the royal navy, and the wood it receives from Spanish Navarre into different parts of France. Mauleon stands in a fruitful valley, it is the smallest capital of a district in the department. Orthez, another chief town of a district, and a place of greater importance, is well built and commanded by the ruins of an old castle. Joan d'Albret granted it an university, and founded a school, in which a trial was made of what has been since called the system of mutual instruction, a system renewed in the present day, and generally believed to be of English invention.* A destructive battle was fought at the gates of the town in 1814; Marshal Soult, at the head of 20,000 men, maintained the shock of 70,000 English, Spaniards and Portuguese under the command of the Duke of Wellington, who purchased a victory with the loss of 10,000 men. The salt springs near *Salies*, a small town in the same district, abound in salt of a pure whiteness, and to it has been attributed the superiority of the hams cured at Pau and Bayonne. It was in the last town that the bayonet was invented in the eighteenth century, a formidable weapon by which many victories have been since decided.

Bayonne.

Bayonne is the only trading town in France, that possesses the advantage of two rivers, into which the sea ascends. The Nive and the Adour divide it into three nearly equal parts, they are called *Great Bayonne, Little Bayonne and the suburbs Saint Esprit.* The streets are broad and straight, the squares and market places are adorned with different edifices; the finest are the cathedral and the exchange. As a strong place, it may be ranked in the first class, it is the seat of a diocess, and the capital of a district. Great Bayonne is commanded by an old castle, Little Bay-

* See histoire de Jeanne d'Albert by Mlle. Vauvilliers.

BOOK CXLII.

onne by a modern castle, and the suburbs of Saint Esprit by a citadel, the work of Vauban, which has been since enlarged and improved. The harbour, although difficult of access for large ships, is safe and much frequented by small vessels. Many persons are engaged in the coasting trade and in the cod fisheries. Bayonne rivals Andaye in the liqueur that bears the name of the village; it sends chocolate into most parts of France, and wines of the first quality are produced in the neighbourhood.

Department of Landes.

The people in the department of Landes see the summits of the Pyrenees at a distance; the Adour and the Lay which descend from these mountains, water lands fruitful in maize and wheat, and the hills on the left are covered with vineyards. But on leaving the Adour, vast plains of sand fatigue the eye by an uniformity which is only broken by fens, marshes or heaths, and at distant intervals, by meadows and cultivated fields. A long green belt near the sea shore is formed by a forest of maritime pines; the same part of the country is thinly peopled. These monotonous and dismal heaths or *landes* give their name to the department. The peasants live in isolated cottages; the father of the family employs himself in cultivating the ground, or in other rural labours, while the young people often travel ten leagues round the country for the purpose of making charcoal in the forests, or of leading their flocks to pastures. It might be supposed that the people were wanderers, and not unwilling to quit an ungrateful soil; certainly their great sobriety, their wants comparatively few, and the velocity with which they move along their deserts by means of long scatches, might afford them great facility; but the love of country prevails. The land, however, is not wholly unproductive; the peasant cultivates hemp, makes sailcloth, and derives considerable profit from the pitch of his fir trees. The soil abounds in iron ore, and there are not fewer than seventeen places in the department in which it may be smelted.

Dax.

Dax on the Adour, above its junction with the Lay, may be considered an important town, not from its population, but as being the capital of a district. It is well built and encompassed by old walls flanked with turrets.

The hospital may be mentioned for the excellent way in which it is managed, and on account of the attention bestowed on the inmates. It possesses a collection of natural history, containing many fossil shells mostly collected in the neighbourhood; some species still found near the coasts, prove that the sandy downs in the department, were covered by the ocean at a later period than the marine deposits round Paris. The thermal springs are frequented, their mean temperature may be about 165° of Fahrenheit. The waters are collected in a pentagonal reservoir nearly 25 feet in depth, surrounded with porches and iron rails. The vapours that rise from them in the morning when the air is cold, form a dense fog, which covers sometimes the whole town. The Romans were not ignorant of the thermal springs in this ancient city of the Tarbelli; it was styled *Aquæ Tarbellicæ*, it is still not unfrequently called *Aqo*, which is evidently derived from the same name. It passed from the Roman domination to that of the Goths, who were succeeded by the Franks, the latter were expelled by the Vascones or Gascons. The Arabs took it in the year 910, and the English in the twelfth century; it was freed from a foreign yoke about the middle of the fifteenth by Charles the Seventh; it carries on at present a considerable trade in the products of the department. It was the native town of Borda, the inventor of the reflecting circle. The small village of Poy in the vicinity claims the honour of having given birth to Vincent de Paul, whom the church adores as a saint, and humanity reveres as a benefactor.

St. Sever.

Saint Sever rises on the left bank of the Adour, at the distance of ten leagues above Dax. It owes its origin to William Sanche, duke of Gascony, who, in the year 982, founded there a celebrated abbey of Benedictines. Aire, at the base of a hill, is the ancient *Vicus Julii*, which was called *Ature* before the reign of Augustus, from the *Atur*, the name given by the Tarusates to the Adour, that flows below the town. Tartas rises like an amphitheatre on the declivity of a hill, it is watered by the Midouze, a feeder of the Adour; the country in the neighbourhood abounds in tortoises, red partridges and different sorts of game. Lastly, Mont de Marsan, situated at the confluence of the

BOOK CXLII.

Douze and Midou, formerly a very insignificant town, has increased in population, since it became the capital of Landes. It bears the name of the founder, Peter viscount de Marsan, by whom it was built in the year 1140. Although not a manufacturing town, its position at the entrance into a vast plain, renders it the principal mart for the trade of the department.

Department of Gironde.

The Leyre, a small river, which rises on the north of Mont de Marsan, and throws itself into the bay of Arcachon, serves as a boundary to the department of the Gironde. The heaths or landes extend near the banks of the Garonne, from which they are separated by the rich vineyards of Medoc, Haut-Brion, Saint Emilion and Grave; they terminate on the west in sandy downs that reach to the sea-shore; the particles of sand carried by the wind, covered formerly every year a space seventy-two feet in breadth by fifty leagues in length. The steeple of a church was long seen near the canal of Furnes, the other parts of the building were buried in the sand. Several houses on the coast of Medoc, have been destroyed in the same manner, and the tops of the highest trees are only observed in an ancient forest near the bay of Arcachon. It was the opinion of Bremontier the engineer, that plants well adapted for such kinds of soil, might be raised on these downs; his advice was followed, and they have since become fruitful. The marble monument, which records the memory of the event, and the gratitude of the inhabitants, is now surrounded by cultivated fields. The most varied and picturesque sites in the country between the Garonne and the Dordogne, succeed the uniformity of the heaths. The soil between the last river and the Dronne, which forms the northern limit of the department, consists of calcareous heights, covered with coppice or vineyards, and separated from each other by fruitful vallies. Enriched by agriculture and trade, the people are industrious and enlightened; iron and other mineral substances are worked with profit; flocks of merinos are by no means uncommon on the estates of the wealthy proprietors, and of late years, the best breeds from England have been introduced into the country.

The towns situated on the landes are poor and thinly peopled; such is *Bazas* the capital of a district. Although it possesses no other antiquities than medals and mosaics, it is known to have been an important place in the time of the Romans, who called it *Cossium Vasatum*, because it was situated in the territory of the *Vasates*. The diocess, of which it was formerly the seat, must have been very ancient, since one of the bishops was present at the council of Agde in the year 506. The cathedral is a fine Gothic edifice of the fourteenth century. The ruins of the church of Ozeste, another Gothic building, erected by pope Clement the Fifth, may be seen at a short distance from the walls. Langon, surrounded by the vineyards of Grave, is better built; it rises on the left bank of the Garonne, where the tide, still perceptible, favours the trade of the town, and the conveyance of wines. Of late years, steam boats have sailed regularly to Bordeaux, and the communication between the two towns, has in consequence been much increased.

Bazas.

Langon.

Many islands are scattered in differents parts of the river, and the banks are bounded by fruitful hills. On the right bank are situated the old towers and embattled walls of Cadillac, as well as the fine castle of Epernon. Rions at a greater distance from the same bank of the river, contains 1500 inhabitants. Castres, on the left bank, near the confluence of the Gué-Mort, is not so important a place as the last, but better built and more agreeably situated on the road from Toulouse to Bordeaux. The last city rises majestically on the banks of the Garonne, at the place where the river forms a large curve, and renders the harbour very imposing. The space it encloses may contain a thousand ships, it describes an arc, of which the two extremities are more than a league distant from each other. Bordeaux may be ranked from its commerce and importance among the first towns in the kingdom. A line of fine buildings extends throughout the whole length of the city; vessels of every size and from every nation repair to the harbour. The mean breadth of the river may be more than a mile, it flows with rapidity, and a magnificent bridge, consisting of seventeen arches, erected on the narrowest

Bordeaux.

BOOK CXLII.

part of the Garonne, covers a space equal to 648 yards in length. The difficulties against which the architect had to contend in building such a bridge in such a situation, were apparently insurmountable. It was necessary to overcome the obstacles arising from the sandy and moving bed of the river, from the depth of twenty-five to forty feet, from the flux of the tide, which twice a-day raises the waters the height of four or five yards, from the current occasioned by the same cause, and from its velocity, exceeding sometimes three yards in a second. Old Bordeaux extends on the right of the bridge; the streets are narrow and crooked, the squares and market places are irregular. The quarter Chartrons is the most commercial part of the town, but the finest and best built is the quarter of Chapeau Rouge. Lewis the Fourteenth destroyed the remains of an ancient temple dedicated to the tutelary gods, in order to lengthen the glacis of Chateau Trompette; but the castle itself has been destroyed since the revolution, and modern buildings not unworthy of so wealthy a city are now raised on the site. All that remains of the old fortifications, now useless, are the ruins of the fortress St. Croix at the extremity of Chartrons: the dockyards extend at their base.

Castle of Ha.

The old dungeons in the castle of Ha are still entire, they are used as a prison. The Burgundian gate, a fine triumphal arch, rises on the harbour, opposite the bridge; it was built to commemorate the birth of the grandson of Lewis the Fourteenth. Another gate near the old trenches of Salinieres, may be remarked on account of the edifice which rises above them, it is the ancient town-house. The Royal square is more worthy of the name from the buildings which adorn it, than from its size. The *place Dauphine*, more regular than the last, is situated at the extremity of a much frequented walk, called the alleys of Tourney; the others worthy of notice, are the Place d'Armes, and Saint Germain. The cathedral, the largest church in the town, is a Gothic edifice, the interior, imposing from its size, is adorned with a costly altar. The large theatre, a circular building, surpasses most places of the same kind in elegance of architecture, and in the commodious arrange-

ment of the boxes. A light and graceful dome towers above the exchange, the rendezvous for merchants from every part of the world. The ancient archiepiscopal palace, an edifice remarkable for its regularity, was changed into a royal palace at the restoration. Bordeaux, like Paris, has a pompous cemetery, where the wealthy accumulate marbles and inscriptions; it is situated at the extremity of the town, in the enclosure of the new Chartreuse, near a handsome modern church embellished with fresco paintings. Within the same rich city are situated several hospitals, an asylum for the deaf and dumb, different academical societies, a public library, consisting of 110,000 volumes, among others, a copy of Montaigne's essays with marginal corrections written by the author; it possesses besides, a botanical garden, one of the four established by government for the purpose of naturalizing exotic plants, a collection of natural history, schools of theology, medicine, surgery, drawing and painting, and lastly, a museum of antiquities, in which are tombs and basso-relievos collected in the town or neighbourhood. We have had occasion to mention the site of an ancient temple, now wholly destroyed; some arcades of an amphitheatre, called *the palace of Gallienus*, are the only remains that serve to recall the Roman domination. It is supposed that Bordeaux was a town before the conquest of Cesar, that its ancient name comes from two words of Celtic origin, *Bur* and *Wal*, signifying a Gallic fortress, and which the Romans corrupted into *Burdigala*. It is thus that Ausonius mentions it in his verses; it became the capital of the second Aquitania during the reign of Hadrian. It was pillaged by the Visigoths about the end of the fourth century; four hundred years afterwards, it was taken by the Saracens and Normans; it passed with the whole of Aquitaine into the power of the English in the year 1152. It was enlarged under Henry the Second and Edward the Third, but it did not become very flourishing until Charles the Seventh freed it from a foreign yoke. Although it may be doubted that it was the native town of Ausonius and Sidonius Apollinaris, it claims at least the merit of having given birth to Montesquieu, to Berquin, to Ducos and Gen-

BOOK CXLII.

sonné, two distinguished members of the convention, lastly to the celebrated defender of Lewis the Sixteenth, whose devotedness was rewarded with the most honourable dignities.

Industry and trade.

Bordeaux has its distilleries, vinegar, nitric acid and sugar works; it possesses paper, cotton, silk and woollen manufactories: the porcelain, glass, hats, carpets and stockings made in the same place are sold in different parts of France. It equips every year nearly two hundred vessels, and of these several are sent to the cod and whale fisheries.

The small town of Blaye, supposed to be the ancient *Blavia*, is situated below the narrow strip of land, called the *Bec d'Ambes*, on the right bank of the Gironde, opposite Medoc. It is divided into two parts, the one rises on the acclivity of a hill, and the other on the summit, where four large bastions serve with fort Medoc to guard the entrance into the river. According to tradition, Caribert, who died in the year 574, was buried within the walls of the town, and also the brave Roland, who fell at Roncevaux in 778. Libourne, the capital of a district, is situated at the confluence of the Dordogne and the Dronne; it is encompassed with walls and agreeable walks, it was founded by Edward the First, king of England. La Reole, the last town worthy of notice, rises near the eastern extremity of the department, on a hill which commands the right bank of the Garonne. It was the birthplace of two worthy men, the two Fauchers, twin brothers, generals in the army, and united to each other by the most devoted friendship. Their patriotism called them both to the field of battle, they served as private soldiers, distinguished themselves in the same engagements, and were made generals at the same time. They disdained to render the cause of freedom, a pretext for the ambition of a single man, as soon, therefore, as Bonaparte assumed the title of consul, and thereby announced his ambitious designs, they resigned their commissions. Their retirement was ennobled with the laurels of twenty campaigns. But the presence of foreign troops on the French territory after the battle of Waterloo, the continuance of hostilities after the departure of Napoleon, and the return of the King, announced the

Libourne.

La Reole.

dangers which threatened France; the two brothers received from general Clausel, the honourable office of defending their native town, an office which they fulfilled with much zeal and ability until, informed of the state of events, they laid down their arms. Their patriotism was imputed to them as a crime; summoned before a special commission,—(Oh disgrace to the French bar!) no advocate was bold enough to defend them. The two brothers were in consequence doomed to death, they were inseparable during life—they died together.

Department of the Lot and Garonne.

If a traveller were to form an opinion of the soil in the department of the Lot and Garonne from the large and fertile valleys that these two rivers water, he might perhaps suppose it the most fruitful in France. But the dismal *landes* that have been already mentioned, extend on the west, and cover an eighth part of the surface. The hills situated on the east between the Garonne and the Lot, particularly near the banks of the Lot, are by no means unfruitful. On the north, the labourer attempts to gain some profit from a ferruginous argil, which covers some districts, it may be truly said, however, that the soil is ungrateful. But in other parts of the country, the corn crops suffice amply for the wants of the inhabitants. Trees of different kinds are loaded with fruit, and it is believed that the best prunes in France are exported from the department. The vineyards often cultivated with the plough, and suffered to grow without props, yield more than double the quantity of wine that the inhabitants consume. The most of the wines are red, thick and strong, they may be kept a long time, they are not impaired by distant voyages. Hemp grows to a great height, and judges consider it superior to any in the north; tobacco is cultivated on a great scale, and it is certainly of a better quality than any other sort in France. Iron, the most abundant mineral substance in the department, adds considerably to the wealth of the inhabitants. The climate is temperate, the sky is seldom clouded, and the air is salubrious; an exception, however, must be made to the country near the marshes, which cover part of the landes. Long successions of rains and droughts often interrupt the course of the seasons; sometimes an atmospheric phenomenon, call-

BOOK CXLII.

ed the *brouillard* in the country, changes the joyful days of spring into days of mourning. If the burning rays of the sun are suddenly felt after the cold, which generally accompanies the same phenomenon, the hopes of the husbandman are blasted.

Marmande.

Marmande was destroyed by the Arabs in the eighth century: although many of the buildings are antiquated, it is on the whole, a well built town; it is the chief place in a district of the same name, it rises on the right bank of the Garonne, and carries on a considerable trade with Bordeaux.

Tonneins.

Tonneins consists mostly of a long and broad street, embellished with several fine houses; the inhabitants are industrious, and the town is a place of trade both in the products of the department, and in different manufactures. The tobacco works, which were at one time in greater repute than any others in France, are situated at a short distance from the walls. Although its snuff is still much prized, connoisseurs of the present day seem to give the preference to that of Clairac, a town situated on the Lot, peopled by 5,000 inhabitants, and one of the first places in the south that embraced the reformation. Villeneuve d'Agen, which was built in the thirteenth century according to a regular plan, is watered by the Lot; the principal arch of a bridge erected at the same epoch over the river, may be about 108 feet in width and 55 in height. The old fortifications are now changed into agreeable walks, but some remains of the former may be seen near the castle of Duke Alphonso, the brother of St. Lewis, and the founder of the town.

Agen.

No other place of any consequence can be mentioned in the same district. Agen, although thinly peopled, is the most important town in the department; the name of *Aginum* attests its antiquity, Ptolemy informs us that it was the capital of the *Nitiobriges*. It obtained the rank and privileges of a city under Theodosius; it is at present the seat of a diocess and a court of justice. The streets are narrow and crooked, the houses clumsy and inconvenient, but the bridge on the Garonne is a fine building of its kind. The walks are laid out with much taste, and the neighbouring country cannot be too much commended. Agen was the native town of Joseph Scaliger and Lacepede. The in-

habitants manufacture hard-wares, sail-cloth and printed cottons. The small but neat town of Nerac on the Bayse, is situated in a picturesque country, and commanded by an ancient Gothic castle, the residence of the kings of Navarre.

Nerac.

Department of the Gers.

The department of the Gers, bounded on the south by the one that has been last mentioned, may be considered an agricultural country; although mountainous on the south, large plains extend towards the north. A seventh portion of the surface is covered with vineyards, the rest is laid out in meadows and corn fields. A great part of the soil yields moderate harvests, very little good wine, but a great quantity of bad, which the inhabitants convert into brandy, inferior certainly to the brandy of Cognac, but with that exception, better than any other sort in France. The brandy still bears the name of *Armagnac*, an ancient province, of which the greater part forms the present department.

Condom.

Condom stands on the Bayse, a river which serves to turn many flour mills in the vicinity; it carries on a considerable trade in leather and quills, it was formerly the seat of a diocess. Several distilleries have been built in the small towns of Cazaubon and Eauze; the name of the last was probably derived from *Elusa*, a city belonging to the *Elusates*, and the metropolis of *Novempopulania*, of which some vestiges are to be found in *Ciutat*, an adjoining hamlet. The village of Castera-Vivent is much frequented on account of the sulphureous springs near it, it is situated on the road to Auch, the ancient *Climberris*, the capital of the *Ausci*, who were subdued by Crassus. Auch is at present the chief town in the department, and the residence of an archbishop, who was formerly entitled primate of Aquitaine. Rising like an amphitheatre on the declivity of a hill, divided by the Gers into the upper and lower town, Auch consists of narrow and winding streets, but the squares and public places are built with greater regularity. The foundation of the cathedral has been attributed to Clovis; it may be admired for the elevation of the vaulted roof, the beauty of the painted windows, which Mary of Medicis wished to remove to Paris, and the elegance of the modern

Auch.

BOOK CXLII.

portal, in which the Corinthian order is united with the Composite. A well built square in the upper part of the town, leads to a pleasant walk, from which the view extends to the Pyrenees; for the same walk as well as other embellishments, the inhabitants are indebted to M. Detigny, an individual to whom they have shown their gratitude by erecting a statue. Auch is the native town of the witty Roquelaure, of admiral Vilaret Joyeuse and general Dessoles. Mirande, the small capital of a poor and sterile district, is encompassed with walls. Lombes, still more insignificant, but situated in a very fruitful part of the country, has been often injured by the inundations of the Save which waters it. Fleurance, although it contains only 3000 inhabitants, is adorned with a fine market place.

Lectoure.

One may follow the windings of the Gers, traverse a fruitful country, and arrive at the height which crowns Lectoure, the birthplace of Marshal Lannes. It is not far removed from the site which has been attributed to *Lactora*, a city of the *Lactorates*. It is chiefly worthy of notice on account of the magnificent view from the *Bastion*, now a public walk. The walls that surround it, are erected on the place occupied by the triple enclosure, which defended it in the time of the counts d'Armagnac, but which proved no security against the vengeance of Lewis the Eleventh on the last descendant of that illustrious family. John, the fifth count, was one of those persons who seem to be impelled in the career of wickedness by an irresistible power, and whose impetuous passions render as culpable as unfortunate. The crimes of his father, for he revolted against his liege lord, might have deprived him of his dominions, had it not been for the clemency of Charles the Seventh, but the misfortunes of his family, the proscription denounced against him in early life, were all unavailing lessons. A passion at which nature shudders, was the origin of his misfortunes. Madly attached to his sister Isabella, a lady renowned for her beauty, the publicity of their guilt brought upon him the wrath of the church; but the resentment or indignation of Rome was appeased by his feigned repentance. Lately excommunicated, hardly restored to Christian privileges, he ventured

Last count of Armagnac.

to solicit dispensations from the pope, which were peremptorily refused, but two persons suborned by the count, forged them, and the monstrous marriage was celebrated with pomp and solemnity. The chief of the church published a second and a terrible anathema against the incestuous pair. Charles employed persuasion and counsel to restore the count to reason, who repaid his kindness by joining the enemies of France. Lectoure was shortly afterwards besieged by a formidable army; Isabella fled, John could not remain without her, both hastened for protection to the King of Arragon, their relative. Love, not fear, had induced the count to fly, but singularly inconsistent in his character, he returned and appeared before the parliament that summoned him. Thrown into prison, he made his escape; proscribed, deprived of his dominions, unable to see her, whom a late but not insincere repentance rendered the most wretched of mothers, he travelled on foot as a mendicant to Rome, and implored for himself,—now that his power had vanished as a dream, and for her who was bewailing her crimes in a cloister, the mercy of the holy father,—an absolution was granted, but not without the most rigid conditions. Lewis the Eleventh put him again in possession of his states, and he married the daughter of the count de Foix; equally ungrateful to his new benefactor, as he was formerly to Charles the Seventh, he conspired against the throne of France. Punished a second time, driven from his dominions, he was enabled to return in consequence of new political intrigues, which he had formed with the duke of Guyenne. He became a third time an exile after the tragical death of the duke, but he made himself a third time master of his capital by ingenuity and treason, and cast Peter of Bourbon into prison, who commanded the town in the name of the King. Lewis the Eleventh had now determined to reduce the power of the great vassals, and the treason of John was not to be passed over with impunity. Tristan the hermit cardinal d'Alby and their sanguinary troops marched against Lectoure; the count defended himself bravely, and his son, the fruit of incestuous love, was slain in a sally. John despairing of success, and no match against the

king in the number of his men, offered to surrender on certain conditions. The conditions were excepted, the cardinal and the count took the sacrament together, and both parties swore on the altar to observe them. The troops had not been many hours in the town before all the inhabitants were put to death; the count fell by the sword, the countess far advanced in pregnancy, was compelled to swallow poison; Charles his only brother, and James d'Armagnac his cousin expiated on the scaffold the crimes of their relative.

Department of Tarn and Garonne.

A new department, that of Tarn and Garonne was added to the others, conformably to a decree passed on the second of November 1808; it consists of different districts, which were taken from the adjoining departments. It is watered by the Aveyron, which throws itself into the Tarn below Montauban, and by the Tarn which joins the Garonne below Moissac. The Gimonne, the Rats and other streams of less consequence, which traverse it in different directions, serve to enlarge a river often liable to inundations. Fruitful and well cultivated fields are enclosed with hedges, or varied with groves of quince trees. The land produces much more wheat than the inhabitants can consume, more than half the wine is converted into brandy, and sent out of the department; the white mulberry tree affords plentiful nourishment to the silk worm, different sorts of poultry are reared in great numbers, and mules prized by the Spaniards, are exported into their country. It is pleasing to observe the reciprocal influence of agricultural and manufacturing industry, thus the consequences of the one are numerous distilleries, silk manufactories and other works of different kinds.

Moissac.

Moissac, founded about the end of the fourth century, rises on the right bank of the Tarn, and the vessels on the river facilitate the trade with Bordeaux. Lauzerte, a small town of 5000 inhabitants, stands on a rock in a picturesque country, at the confluence of the Landou and the Barguelonne. The ancient walls and ramparts that encompassed *Castel-Sarrazin* are now changed into agreeable walks.

Montauban.

Montauban, the most central town in the department, was founded in the twelfth century. It has been affirmed that it received the name of *Mons Albanus* from the great quantity of willows in the vicinity, which the country people called *albas*. It is a large and well built town; the Tarn, which divides it into three quarters, affords easy communication with Bordeaux, and adds to the importance of its trade. The gates, the town-house and most of the public buildings are not inelegant; the cathedral is much older than the town, indeed it is well known that long before the foundation of the latter, the convent of *Mons Aureolus* stood in the highest part of the present Montauban. It is the native town of Lefranc de Pompignan and other distinguished men.

It is said that queen Brunehault had a castle at Bruniquel on the left bank of the Verre, where the lower orders find at present employment in refining sugar, and working iron. Negrepelisse was a flourishing city, before it was burnt by the troops of Lewis the Fourteenth. *Cossade Saint Antonin* and *Caylus* are small towns of four or five thousand inhabitants, who manufacture serge, coarse cloth, dress leather, and carry on a considerable trade in the corn and wines of the department.

Department of Aveyron.

Mounts Espinouse, Garriguen, Aubrac and some branches of Cantal extend over almost all the surface in the department of Aveyron; vasts forests cover their declivities, and the snow remains on their summits six months in the year. Thus, although a southern department, the climate is cold in some places; and in others where the temperature is milder, wheat is not perhaps the most common sort of grain. More than a third part of the land remains uncultivated, but the harvests are sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants. The vineyards, confined to the eastern part of the country, produce as much wine as the people can consume; if, however, the wines of Agnac, Laucedat and Marcillac be expected, all the others are of an ordinary quality. But the wealth of the department consists in fruitful meadows and pastures, which afford the means of rearing horses, mules, oxen, goats, and more than 600,000 sheep. A small proportion of the milk of the she-goats

BOOK CXLII.

is mixed with that of the ewes, and changed into the cheese of Roquefort, which the inhabitants export into most countries in Europe. The different metals in the same department are still unworked; but it contains besides extensive coal mines and aluminous schistus, of which the produce in sulphate of alumen forms an article of commerce; the quantity obtained might be easily increased in a tenfold ratio. In the chain that separates the Lot from the Aveyron, are found the mineral riches, of which the existence was hardly imagined thirty years ago. It was only known that they contained coal by their spontaneous combustion; indeed the cause of their ignition was long attributed to the decomposition of sulphuretted iron, although similar fires are often occasioned by accidental causes. A remarkable example of this kind may be seen on the heights of Fontagne, at the distance of four hundred feet above the Aveyron. One may there examine a crevice of an elliptical form, surrounded with plants, of which the pale verdure indicates their languid and unhealthy state. The combustion is not visible during the day, but favoured by the obscurity of the night, flames are seen to rise from the cavity, which resembles a small crater; the persons who venture to approach, notwithstanding the heat and smoke exhaled from it, may observe a mass of burning coal. The combustion has continued for several ages, but it is believed that a perceptible diminution has taken place in its intensity. The mountains in the department form the boundaries of six long vallies, watered by the Trueyre, the Lot, the Aveyron, the Viaur, the Tarn and the Sorgues, almost all of which flow in the direction from east to west. The same vallies are filled with fruitful alluvial deposits; the rivers, particularly the Lot and the Tarn, serve to move different works, such as silk, wóollen and paper manufactories, and facilitate commercial intercourse with the neighbouring departments. The towns are mostly insignificant, they may be shortly described. Ville-Franche, the chief town in the most western district, is agreeably situated at the confluence of the Alzon and the Aveyron; it was the birthplace of the marshal of Belle-Isle; the neighbouring country abounds in rich pastures.

Spontaneous combustions.

Rhodez.

Rhodez or Rodez, the capital of the department, certainly the smallest, perhaps the ugliest provincial capital in France, is built on a hill, at the base of which the Aveyron flows with great rapidity. It must not be inferred that the neighbouring country is destitute of beauty, on the contrary, the views from many places are romantic; but the dirty, dark, narrow and crooked streets, all built on an inclined plane, are steep and difficult of access. A great many wooden houses and others of stone project on the streets, and the numerous inequalities in the pavement are filled with rough and sharp stones; on the whole, in point of convenience and comfort, it may be said to be several centuries behind the other towns in France. The inhabitants are indebted to the liberality of Francis d'Estaing, one of their bishops, for their cathedral, the only edifice of consequence in Rhodez. The extent of the nave, the boldness of the vaulted roof, the finely formed windows, the steeple not less than 250 feet in height, the principal tower terminating in a cupola, and crowned by a colossal statue of the Virgin, render it perhaps the finest monument of Gothic architecture in southern France. It has long been considered one of the wonders in the department, and according to a ridiculous Latin inscription on one of the walls, it is said to be equal in height to the pyramids in Egypt. It is not doubtful that the Vandals of the revolution would have destroyed the building, had it not been for the address of a single citizen, who preserved it by moving in an assembly that it ought to be dedicated to Marat, a motion which was carried by acclamation.* Rhodez has given birth to some distinguished men, among others to Hugh Brunet, a troubadour of the twelfth century, and to John de Serres, a protestant theologian. The same town bore before the Roman conquest, the Celtic name of *Segodunum*, which the Romans changed into *Rutena*, because it was the capital of the *Ruteni*. If any opinion may be formed from the resemblance between different words which have passed from the Celtic into the Latin, the people who at a remote period inhabited the province of Rouerge, might with greater accuracy have been called the

* See Promenade de Paris à Bagneres de Luchon by the count P. de Y.

BOOK CXLII.

Rutheni, from the Celtic word *Ruth*, or the German *Roth*, which signifies *red;* the origin of the name is still indicated in the red colour of the soil and sandstone near Rhodez.

St. Afrique.

St. Afrique, almost encompassed with fine walks, is watered by the Sorgues, which flows in the middle of a valley intersected with orchards, meadows and vineyards. The crooked streets are lined with Gothic houses; an hospital and the reformed church are the only buildings worthy of notice. The village of Roquefort at two leagues from the town, was famous for its cheese more than eight hundred years ago.

Milhau, the Roman *Æmilianum*, is built on the Tarn, in an advantageous situation for trade and manufacturing industry. Severac-le-Chateau, a town of two thousand inhabitants, rises on a conical hill, commanded by an old Gothic fortress, in which a drawbridge leads to the massive ramparts. St. Geniez-d'Olt stands on the Lot; *Oltis* was the ancient name of the same river, a name which was probably corrupted into *Olt*. It is a neat and small town of 4000 inhabitants, it has given birth to Raynal. Espalion, although not so large, is the capital of a district; it consists chiefly of a long, broad and well-built street.

Department of Lot.

The department which bears the name of the Lot, is crossed from east to west by the same river; the Dordogne and the Cere water the northern extremities, and the Sellé, less important than the rest, winds from north-east to south-west, and falls into the Lot. Although the heights are not lofty, they cover a great extent of surface; different metals are contained in them, and iron in sufficient abundance to supply several large foundries. The valleys are fruitful in grain, lint and tobacco; the low hills are covered with vineyards. The excess of the grain harvest above the consumption is considerable, that of the wines amounts to three-fifths.

Figeac.

The inhabitants of Figeac on the right bank of the Sellé, manufacture cotton stuffs, and carry on a great trade in wines and cattle. It was gradually built near a benedictine abbey founded by Pepin in the year 755. When the abbot made his first entrance into the town, a baron, the lord of Montbrun, appeared in the costume of a harlequin with one leg bare, and the other covered with an embroidered stocking;

Ancient ceremony.

he led a horse from the stable on which the pious man mounted, and, holding the bridle, conducted him to the church gate, where he waited until the abbot had gone through his devotions, held the stirrup for him on his return, and led him back to his house. The ceremony was performed for the last time in the year 1766.*

Cahors.

Cahors was a town before Cæsar invaded Gaul, it was then called *Divona*, and according to tradition it excited the admiration of the Roman general. It is certain that it was embellished by the Romans, who gave it the name of *Cadurci* from the people in the country. Some vestiges of these ancient times still exist, among others, the remains of a theatre, an aqueduct and a monument near the prefect's palace, erected during the reign of Augustus, to commemorate the courageous resistance which their countrymen made against Cæsar at *Uxellodunum*, the present Capdenac. The cathedral, it has been thought, is partly formed by the remains of an ancient temple, at all events, the portal is wholly modern. The ramparts are used as a public walk; they rise above the Lot, which encompasses nearly the whole town, and the rock on which it stands. The streets are steep and crooked; the royal college, the seminary, the library, the museum of natural history, the theatre and episcopal palace, are nowise remarkable on account of their architecture. But the diocess was one of some importance before the revolution; the prelate, who possessed it, was entitled the count of Cahors, and he had the privilege of having his gloves and sword placed beside the altar whenever he officiated. His installation was accompanied with a ceremony similar in some respects to the one that was performed at Figeac. The viscount of Cessac, the vassal of the church, waited for him at the city gate, having his head uncovered, without a mantle, the right leg bare, and a slipper on the right foot. In this dress, he held the bridle of the bishop's mule, and led it to the episcopal palace, where he appeared in the capacity of a footman, and served his liege lord during dinner. As a recompense for his trouble, he received the mule and the buffet, which had been used at the repast, the value of the

Ancient privileges of the bishop.

* See Journal Encyclopedique de Mars, 1766.

BOOK CXLII.

latter was fixed at L.130. Cahors was the birthplace of pope John XXII, who in the year 1321, founded an university in his native town, of the poet Clement Marot, La Calprenede the financier, Joachim Murat, king of Naples, and general Ramel, who was assassinated at Toulouse in 1815. The manufactures of the town are paper, cloth, and leather.

Subprefectures.

Gourdon, the capital of a subprefecture, rises on the Bloue, a small river; it carries on some trade in sail cloth and woollen stuffs. Souillac may be about seven leagues from Gourdon; it contains a royal manufactory of fire arms, it is watered by the Dordogne, on which a fine bridge consisting of seven arches has been erected. Two intermitting fountains, the *Gourg* and the *Bouley* are situated in the neighbourhood; the first rises in the valley of Blagour, and the other issues from the heights of Puy Martin. They never flow at the same time, as soon as the one ceases the other begins, and changes in a few minutes the valley which serves as its channel into a sheet of water. The eruption of the Bouley is almost always accompanied with a slight shock and a tremendous noise.

Department of Dordogne.

We may pass from the department of Lot into that of Dordogne by descending the last river, which traverses it on the south from east to west. It is also watered by the Ille, the Dronne, the Vezere, and by more than fourteen hundred small rivers and streams. Hills extend along the country in every direction, but with the exception of two valleys, those watered by the Ille and the Dordogne, they bound only narrow passes, almost all of which are desolated by torrents. The soil is by no means productive; the calcareous rocks are in many places bare, or vast districts are covered with heath, broom and chestnut trees; the uniformity thus occasioned is in a few places broken by sterile marshes. Some parts are rich and fruitful, but they are so insignificant in point of extent, that they may be said to form an exception to the general character of the department. The grain harvests are not sufficient for the maintenance of the inhabitants, but the deficiency is supplied by using chestnuts as a substitute. As to the vintage, more than half the wines are either consumed in different parts of France, or they are converted into brandy for exportation. Mineral

substances abound in the country, the most valuable are coal, manganese and iron. The working of the last metal, and the art of converting it into steel, furnish employment to many of the inhabitants. The same country supplies the gourmands in Paris with different delicacies, among which the white wine of Bergerac is not the least important; pork, red partridges, truffles, liqueurs and sweetmeats are also sent to the capital.

Sarlat. Sarlat exports a great quantity of paper, it is the chief town in a district that abounds in iron and copper ore, millstones and coal. The people in Belves and Bugne find employment in making walnut oil. The Doux takes its source in the same district; it rises in a narrow valley, and fills a circular basin, of which the depth has not been ascertained, but the circumference exceeds 176 yards. The labyrinths in a cave about three leagues distant from Sarlat, are more than 4,200 yards in length; they extend between the burgh of Miremont and the village of Privaset. The small and neat town of Bergerac rises on the right bank of the Dordogne; its position enables the inhabitants to carry on an advantageous trade with Libourne and Bordeaux. Many persons are employed in the foundries, iron-works and paper-mills in the vicinity. Michel de Montaigne, a village about eight leagues from Bergerac, is situated near the castle that belonged to the celebrated philosopher, the chamber wherein the most of his essays were composed, may still be seen in one of the turrets.

Perigueux. A steep road on an arid ridge leads to the fruitful valley watered by the Ille, and to Perigueux, the capital of the department, and the chief town in a diocess. It stands on the site of the ancient *Vesunna*. The streets are dark, narrow and crooked, the old quarter or the city is almost deserted. Were it necessary to indicate its importance in the time of the Romans, it might be sufficient to mention the public baths and aqueducts now in ruins, the remains of the amphitheatre, and the tower of *Vesunne*, as the inhabitants call it, a circular edifice without doors or windows, but communicating with the town by a subterranean passage. Several monuments of the middle ages, the cathedral, different inscriptions, and the church of Saint Front, in which the Gothic

BOOK CXLII.

architecture recalls the period of the low empire, prove how much it has fallen since the time that Pepin defeated the duke of Aquitaine under its walls. The inhabitants of the present day carry on a trade with the capital in turkeys, truffles, pastry, liqueurs and other articles.

Brantome.

Brantome, a small town on the left bank of the Dronne, peopled by 2700 inhabitants, was formerly the seat of a benedictine convent, which might have been long since forgotten, had it not been for Peter de Bourdeilles, better known by the name of Brantome, a writer of some celebrity, and although a layman, abbot of the convent. Nontron on the right bank of the Bandiat carries on a trade in leather, hardware goods and iron obtained from the mines in the neighbourhood. Riberac, the chief town of a contiguous district, rises in a fruitful plain at no great distance from the Dronne, but still nearer an old castle that belonged to the viscounts of Turenne.

BOOK CXLIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—France. Second Section. Western Region.

We have had occasion to observe the mild climate, the romantic sites and the remains of Roman power in the twenty-eight departments that form the Southern region of France. The inhabitants, it has been seen, are favoured by nature, different productions are admirably adapted for their country, with the exception of the mountains, the soil is everywhere fruitful. But if the population be compared with the surface, it will be found that the result accords ill with the natural advantages of the same vast region, which makes up more than a third part of the kingdom. The extent is equal to 9,000 square leagues, the population to 8,404,000 individuals, thus the number of inhabitants to every square league does not amount to nine hundred and thirty-four, a result below the mean number in the other divisions of the same country. Such facts are not without their value; if the best and most fruitful part of France is comparatively poor and ill-peopled, it proves how much the munificence of nature may be surpassed by the industry and resources of man. Government too may derive an important lesson from the same fact, it may thus be taught to appreciate the elements of its wealth and power. Thirteen departments make up the western region; the population relatively to the surface is greater than in the last, for 5,438,000 inhabitants are scattered over a surface of 4200 square leagues, consequently the average number to

BOOK CXLIII.

every square league exceeds 1290; still the advantages of education are little known in the western region; in that point of view it is almost on a level with the preceding. How much then might the population and wealth be increased, if ignorance no longer formed a barrier to the expansion of industry?

Department of Charente.

Continuing in the direction from south to north, the department of Charente may be first described. Contiguous, but much inferior in size to the department of Dordogne, it is intersected on the north by high hills, and on the south by low ridges and heights. Nine rivers, exclusively of the one from which the department takes its name, water it in different directions. So many pools are contained in the bed of the Tardouere, that most of the water remains in them, indeed it never joins the Bandiat until it has been swollen by rains. The last river exhibits the same phenomena; the hills which bound it are undermined by immense cavities, adorned with the finest stalactites. The Taponnat after a course of some leagues fills different pools, and never afterwards appears. The Touvre, almost as large as the Sorgues at Vaucluse, issues from the cavities of a steep rock; although it encloses several islands, it might be rendered navigable without much difficulty. These rivers, as well as the Perouse, the Né, the Tude, the Nizonne and the Vienne water valleys abounding in rich pastures. The calcareous ridges and sandy plains that cover several districts, account for the aridity of the soil in the greater portion of the department. The arable land may be equal to a third part of the whole, the grain harvests are sufficient for the maintenance of the inhabitants; another third is laid out in vineyards, yielding wines of an ordinary quality, but it is for the most part converted into brandy, of which the quantity exported into the interior and into different countries amounts to more than thirty-five thousand barrels. The rest of the department is covered with chestnut trees, uncultivated plains, natural and artificial meadows, affording pasture to thirty thousand oxen, which the inhabitants import every year; they are fattened and again exported. Mines are worked

in the department, and iron ore is converted into cast iron and bars.

Angouleme

Angouleme rises on a hill, which may be seen from a great distance; the air is pure and salubrious; several of the inhabitants attain to a great age, and the women are distinguished for their beauty. The *Quartier-Neuf* is the only one worthy of notice; ill-built houses, crooked and narrow streets make up the rest of the town. The suburbs of Ousmeau stands on a declivity above the Charente, the inhabitants have erected several paper mills, distilleries and sugar works, they manufacture woollen stuffs, porcelain and earthen ware. It is the capital of the department, and also the seat of a diocess. It was once fortified, but the ramparts have been changed into public walks, that rise in the form of terraces, and command an extensive horizon bounded by heights; the most remarkable objects in the view are the small river of Anguienne, that winds along rich meadows and fruitful hills, the fine bridge over the Charente, and the obelisk raised by government to the present dutchess of Angouleme. Within the same town are contained a royal naval school, a college, a library and a museum of natural history: it was the birthplace of Balzac, Montalembert the engineer, and the assassin of Henry the Fourth. It is a place of great antiquity, the Romans called it *Iculisma*, it is more than once mentioned by Ausonius, but it did not rise into importance before the period of the middle ages. Larochefoucault, a small town on the Tardouere, consists of a single street, it contains 3000 inhabitants. The old Gothic castle which commands it, was the birthplace of the duke, whose fame has been perpetuated by his book of maxims.

Confolans.

Confolans, surrounded by a comparatively sterile country, the capital of a subprefecture, which derives its name from the confluence of the Goire and the Vienne, is not, however, unpleasantly situated, and the banks of both the rivers are fruitful in pastures. A square turret in the neighbourhood is all that remains of a strong castle. It is necessary to cross the Charente at two places on the road that leads from Confolans to the small and neat town of Ruffec, that rises on the right bank of the same river. A

BOOK CXLIII.

Jarnac.

small chain of hills terminates on the south at the neighbourhood of the Charente, which describes many windings through large meadows. The same river waters Jarnac, houses are built on both the banks, and it possesses a harbour of some importance. A modern monument erected on the plain, serves to mark the field of battle, where the duke d'Anjou defeated the prince of Condé in the year 1569. As it has been thought consistent with good taste to commemorate the fatal engagement in which Frenchmen fought against each other, the place near the walls of the town, where the unfortunate prince was assassinated by the marquis of Montesquiou after the victory, ought also to have been indicated.

Cognac.

Cognac, the capital of the same district, rises on an eminence, of which the base is watered by the Charente. Francis the First was born in the old castle that defended formerly this commercial city, the mart of the excellent brandy and liqueurs that are distilled in the adjoining districts.

Barbezieux in the middle of the fruitful country through which the Nè flows, is neither so populous nor so well built as Cognac, it rises on the declivity of a hill, on the high road from Paris to Bordeaux; the ancient fortress has been changed into a prison. The trade it carries on with the metropolis, consists chiefly in capons and truffles. Aubeterre on the Dronne, at the southern extremity of the department, is finely situated at the base of a hill, commanded by an ancient castle. The church is cut in the rock which supports part of the town.

Department of Lower Charente.

The lower part of the Charente, waters a country fruitful in corn, and abounding in vineyards of which the produce is converted into brandy. The mouth of the Gironde, and a great extent of coast tend to enrich a laborious population. There are not many inequalities in the department, all the hills are low, and the extensive plains are salubrious. But the saline marshes near the sea, which furnish the salt known in England by the name of Rochelle salt, diffuse pestilential exhalations, and occasion different diseases. Many anchorages and ports facilitate navigation, promote the coasting trade, and induce companies or individuals to equip vessels for the cod fish-

eries and the French colonies. Lastly, the islands of Ré, Oleron and Aix add to the maritime importance of the department.

Jonzac is situated in part of the country contiguous to the last department; it is the chief town in an ill-peopled district, inferior in size to the burgh of Mirambeau, which contains 3200 inhabitants. Saintes, the capital of Saintonge, is an old and probably on that account, a dirty town. Ammianus Marcelinus considered it the most flourishing city in Aquitaine. It was called *Mediolanum*, the Romans changed it afterwards into *Santones*, after the name of the people in that part of Gaul. It possesses still the remains of a triumphal arch, and the ruins of an amphitheatre. It was the seat of a diocess, and several councils have been held in the town. The last met in the year 1096, and enjoined the faithful to fast during the vigils of the apostles. The residence of the subprefect, the theatre, the college and the ancient cathedral cannot be commended on account of their architecture; the public library contains 24,000 volumes. Bernard de Palissy was born at Saintes, a man of genius, who from the condition of a potter became one of the most eminent natural philosophers of the sixteenth century. The Boutonne, a small river begins to be navigable at Saint-Jean d'Angely, and enables the industrious inhabitants to carry on a trade in brandy and timber. Religious wars were long fatal to the town, indeed they may be said to have been so from the period of the memorable siege by which it fell into the hands of Henry the Third, to the time it supported another siege against Lewis the Thirteenth, who razed the fortifications. The second Henry de Bourbon Condè, and Regnaud, a statesman under the imperial government, were born in St. Jean d'Angely. It possesses a royal powder manufactory. The horses in the neighbourhood are much valued in different parts of France. Maremmes, about half a league distant from the sea, is exposed to the pernicious exhalations from the salt marshes. Although a well built and a commercial town, it might have been much more flourishing than at present, had it not been for its unhealthy situation. Ton-

Saintes.

BOOK CXLIII.

nay-Charente possesses a safe and commodious harbour for vessels of a hundred tons.

Rochefort.

Rochefort rises on the Charente about a league's distance from the last place; the harbour, one of the three largest in France, may be about 2500 yards in length, it contains a sufficient quantity of water to float ships of the line at low tide. Ships of 600 tons with their cargoes, enter a smaller harbour adapted for merchant vessels. Rochefort is nearly four leagues distant from the ocean, but the advantages of an admirable position are increased by large dockyards, careening wharfs, naval storehouses, cordage and sail manufactories. The town is regularly built, the streets are straight, many of them terminate in a large piece of ground planted with trees. The hospital, the prison in which 2400 galley-slaves may be confined, the cannon foundery and the arsenal are the finest buildings. A reservoir enables the inhabitants to water the streets daily, a precaution by so much the more necessary as from the month of August to October, the air of Rochefort is any thing but salubrious. The works that defend it are the ramparts by which it is surrounded, and the forts raised at the embouchure of the Charente. An excellent road leads to Rochelle, the capital of the department.

Rochelle.

The last town was founded in the tenth century. Philip Augustus conferred several privileges on the inhabitants; it was ceded to the English by the treaty of Bretigny. Charles the Fifth contrived to add it to his dominions; the political divisions to which the reformation gave so much weight, rendered it the centre of protestant opposition, it was then besieged by Lewis the Thirteenth, and taken after a resistance of 13 months, a resistance which cost the king more than L.2,000,000. Situated on a gulf, the harbour is safe and commodious; whatever be the height of the waters in the ocean, vessels may be careened in the basin, in which they receive their cargoes. The fortifications were constructed by Vauban. Straight streets, many houses adorned with porticos that form arcades, the elegant court of the castle, the exchange and the townhouse give the place an imposing aspect. It is the native town of Reaumur, Seignette the druggist, who discovered the pur-

gative salt that bears his name, and of several distinguished men. It is not remarkable, therefore, to find it the seat of learned and scientific societies; it possesses a valuable library, a museum of natural history, a botanical garden, and a school of navigation. The *Mail*, a public walk, commands a view of the ocean; from it may be seen the isle, of Re on the right, peopled by fishermen, and encompassed with breakers. Aix, where vessels wait for favourable winds, rises in front, and the important Oleron on the left, an island abounding in wine and salt. Marans, a small but neat town at the northern extremity of the department carries on a trade in salt, and contains four thousand inhabitants; it has a safe harbour on the Sevre-Niortaise at the distance of four miles from the sea, to which vessels of a hundred tons are borne by the tides.

Department of Vendée.

The Vendée, the largest feeder of the Sevre-Niortaise, is only navigable in a short part of its course, not more than six leagues in length. At the time France was divided according to the new divisions, the same river was chosen rather than the Lay, the last is certainly larger, but the name of La Vendee was given to one of the most fruitful maritime departments—to one which by its devotedness to the royal cause, became at the revolution the focus of a civil war, that lasted not less than seven years, and desolated almost all the eastern part of France. The soil may be divided into three kinds. The *Marais* comprehends all the country on the coast, it is covered with sands which have been rendered productive by canals and the labour of man; it abounds also in marshes, which from their extent and the quantity of salt collected from them, seem to indicate that the ocean covered these coasts at a comparatively recent period. The *Bocage* consists in some places of sterile heaths, but in others of woods or lands that numerous streams serve to water and fructify. The *Plain* formed by all the country between the Bocage and the southern limit of the department, may be considered the most fertile and the best adapted for every sort of cultivation. The mephitic vapours that rise from the Marais, are fatal to the health of the inhabitants; drained or intersected by many canals, destitute of springs, only afford-

ing water more or less brackish to quench the thirst, it is with all these disadvantages one of the best cultivated countries in France. It produces excellent lint, abundant grain harvests, leguminous plants remarkable for their size, and pastures on which horses, oxen and sheep are reared. The Bocage yields good wine, and the fields are divided by hedges and orchards. The plain is fruitful in every sort of grain, but white wines of an ordinary quality are only produced on the vineyards. Earthen-wares, coarse linen, woollen manufactures, the extracting of soda from sea-weed, and the produce of the fisheries and salt marshes, form the principal branches of industry.

Fontenay-le-Comte.

Fontenay-le-Comte excited the indignation of the republican government; ridiculously jealous of whatever might be associated with the ancient system, it did not suffer the town to be called by its usual name, but changed it by a decree into that of *Fontenay-le-Peuple*. It stands in a fruitful valley on the left bank of the Vendée. The sombre remains of a strong castle, a church of which the steeple may be about 300 feet in height, and a suburbs larger than the town itself, give it the appearance of an important city; it is the capital of a district. Lucon, the second town in the same district, has been raised into the seat of a diocess, it contains about 3600 inhabitants. The houses are well built, but the streets are ill paved, it is situated at the extremity of a canal, which throws itself into the sea at the Anse d'Aiguillon. A road through a dull and monotonous country leads to Sables d'Olonnes, a town consisting of four long and parallel streets, built on a narrow stripe of sandy land that protrudes into the sea, it is defended by several forts. The harbour which can only receive vessels of a hundred and fifty tons, separates the town from the suburbs of Chaume, which rises on a rock. Saint Giles, another seaport on the same coast, lies opposite the isle of Yeu, which is only inhabited by fishermen; but Moirmoutiers, a larger island at some distance from it, contains two villages and a town of the same, name peopled by 7500 individuals. Both these islands form part of the district of Sables d'Olonne, which extends on the north to the district of Bouin, formerly a calcareous rock, but at present united to

Sables d'Olonnes.

the continent, and more than seven leagues in circumference, the canal by which it was separated from the land, now serves as the means of communication, it has been changed into an embankment. The district gives its name to a village of 2500 inhabitants.

Bourbon Vendée.

Bourbon Vendée, a thinly peopled town, but the only one of any consequence that has not been mentioned, was formerly the burgh of La Roche-sur-Yon in the principality that belonged to the house of Bourbon-Conti. It contained hardly 800 inhabitants in 1807, when its name was changed into that of the emperor, who laid out L.126,000 in erecting the necessary buildings for the chief town of a prefecture; it is almost superfluous to add that its ancient name was restored in 1814. It is built after the plan of a large city, but many edifices remain unfinished, the funds for the purpose are wanting; the streets are broad, straight and deserted. It can never become a place of commerce or industry until the projected canal of Bret has been completed, because it stands on the Yon, a small river far from others that are navigable, and from any populous town.

Department of Deux Sevres.

The department of Deux Sevres, contiguous on the west to that of La Vendée, is crossed in a diagonal direction by the heights of Gatine, a chain of lofty hills shaded by forests, from which the inhabitants export different sorts of timber. Intersected by many streams, it takes its name from the two Sevres; the one flowing from south to north, the other from east to west; the one called Sevre-Nantaise, and the other Sevre-Niortaise, because they water Nantes and Niort. Many fine valleys and plains fruitful in vineyards and pastures, extend in different directions, but there are also much uncultivated land, numerous fens and marshes. The grain and wine harvests exceed the consumption, herds and flocks are reared on the meadows. It furnishes the mules that are so much prized by the wealthy Spaniards, others that travel with heavy burdens across the steep Alps and Pyrenees, and those too, that drag the enormous wagons, which are seen on all the roads in the south of France. The sale of these animals in foreign countries, yields several millions of

franks to the department. The oxen form also a lucrative branch of commerce; the fattest are sent to Paris, but the greater number are sold and fattened in Normandy. The people work iron, and manufacture cotton and coarse woollen stuffs.

Niort.

Niort, the capital of the department, and a place of some antiquity, has been much improved; modern buildings now occupy the site of the rubbish and old houses, that rendered it formerly one of the dirtiest towns in Poitou. The most remarkable edifices are an old Gothic church built by the English, the townhouse, the ancient palace that belonged to Eleanor of Aquitaine, and the fine fountain of Vivien. Madame de Maintenon was born in one of the prisons in the same town; the celebrated men that it has produced, are Isaac de Beausobre and Lewis de Fontanes. The picturesque banks of the Sevre in the neighbourhood add to the beauty of the public walks and gardens. The small town of Mauzé is the capital of a district from which fifteen or twenty thousand asses are annually exported. Saint Maixent, a town of five thousand souls, may be mentioned on account of the fruitful country in the neighbourhood. The finest mules in Europe are reared in the district, of which Melle is the chief town.

Parthenay.

A plain on the other side of the Gatine hills is watered by the Thouet; Parthenay rises near its banks, on a hill formerly commanded by an ancient castle now in ruins. The village of Foret at no great distance from the sources of Sevre-Nantaise, contains the tomb of the celebrated Duplesis Mornay, whom the catholics called the pope of the Huguenots; the river flows in the neighbourhood, and serves to move different mills. Bressuire is situated on a hill, which confines the streams of the Argenton; it was so much injured during the wars of La Vendée that at one time the only buildings left entire were a solitary house and the granite church. It has since become the capital of a subprefecture, the inhabitants manufacture linen and woollen stuffs. In a north-east direction and about five leagues distant from the last place, the Thouet flows round the base of a hill, and Thouars stands on the summit. It was proba-

bly founded before the sixth century; *Thouars* or *Thoaci arx* signifies the citadel of the Thouet. Pepin took it in the year 758, and the English rendered it in the middle ages one of the strongest places in Poitou. As the town was more than once desolated during the civil wars, it may excite surprise that the magnificent old castle built in the time of Lewis the Thirteenth by the dutches of La Tremouille, remains entire.

Department of Vienne.

The Vienne gives its name to the department through which it passes from north to south. Some of the hills on the south are lofty, those on the north are insignificant; a high ridge that extends in the centre, encompasses the Vienne and the Clain, one of its feeders; the eastern districts consist of low plains and valleys. The soil cannot be said to be fruitful, it consists in many places of heaths and landes, still it produces as much grain as the inhabitants consume; and a surplus quantity of wine, by no means inconsiderable, is either exported or converted into brandy. Different mineral springs and iron mines are situated in the department; it is unnecessary to mention the hardware goods, the cutlery, the coarse woollen stuffs and ordinary lace that the inhabitants manufacture, it may be sufficient to remark that the greatest hinderance to their commerce is the want of roads and other outlets.

Civray.

Civray, a small town and the capital of the most southern district possesses a church, which was probably built before the establishment of Christianity in Gaul. Montmorillon is the capital of another district from which biscuits and macaroni are exported into different parts of France. An ancient and very curious monument, supposed by many to be of Druidical origin, stands in the court of the old convent that belonged to the Augustines.

Poitiers.

The ancient capital of Poitou rises on a hill that may be seen from the confluence of the Boivre and the Clain. It was the *Limonum* of the *Pictavi*, an important place in Ptolemy's time; it is now the capital of the department, and it still retains its old walls flanked with towers, the venerable witnesses of the invasion made by the Visigoths into the country, and of their defeat by Clovis. King John of France having refused the advantageous terms offered by Edward,

BOOK CXLIII.

lost the memorable battle of Poitiers, in which a French army of eighty thousand men was defeated by eight thousand English; the king was taken prisoner and conveyed to England. Charles the Sixth removed the parliament of Paris to Poitiers during the wars he maintained against the English. The streets are crooked and narrow, but some traces of ancient splendour may be discovered in the remains of the palace erected by the emperor Gallienus, in the ruins of an amphitheatre, and even perhaps in the street that is now called the *Arena*. The Guillon, a picturesque walk in the neighbourhood, terminates near the imposing ruins of a Gothic castle. The cathedral, which in point of size is equal to any other in France, was built in the eleventh century, but the diocess of Poitiers dates from a much earlier epoch, indeed twenty-three councils have been held in the town during a period from the middle of the fourth to the beginning of the fifteenth century.* The ashes of Madam de Montespan rest in the Grey Friars' church; two bishops of the fourth century, Saint Hilary and Saint Maximin, were born in Poitiers; it contains a curious collection of antiquities, and a library of 22,000 volumes.

Chatellerault.

The Vienne begins to be navigable at seven leagues on the north-east of Poitiers. Chatellerault rises on the right bank of the river, where a modern bridge has been erected, that leads to an old castle flanked with four large towers; it may be doubted that the building adds much to the strength of the place, but it serves at least as a gate to the town.

Loudun.

Loudun may be about nine leagues distant in a north-west direction from Chatellerault, it is situated on a hill, and surrounded by vineyards that yield good wine. Although an insignificant town, it has given birth to several distinguished men, among others to John Maigret, better known perhaps by the name of Macrin, or the assumed Latin one of Macrinus, and to Doctor Renaudot, who published the first French newspaper in the year 1631. Urbain Grandier, a curate, was accused and condemned in the same town during the reign of Lewis the Thirteenth. A song that he had

* Namely, in the years 355, 389, 592, 937, 1000, 1010, 1028, 1030, 1032, 1036, 1073, 1078, 1094, 1100, 1105, 1109, 1280, 1284, 1304, 1367, 1387, 1396 and 1405.

written against Cardinal Richelieu was the cause of his death; a pretext, however, was necessary, and it was alleged that he had bewitched a convent of Ursuline nuns. Ignorant and superstitious women may be excited or bribed to swear on the altar that they are possessed by demons,—if the experiment were renewed at present, it might be followed with the same success; it is much more wonderful that they were believed at so recent a period, at a time when many great and good men were living in France. Although a matter of deep regret, it ought not to be concealed that clergymen perhaps suborned, certainly encouraged and confirmed such witnesses in their delusion; the same men put an innocent brother to the torture, and afterwards burnt him alive to gratify the vengeance of a minister, whose great actions were sullied by greater crimes.

Department of Maine and Loire.

The Mayenne throws itself into the Loire, and takes the name of the Maine after its junction with the Sarthe, hence the department has been called Maine and Loire. Manufacturing industry, the culture of corn and the vine, the working of mines, granite, marble and slate quarries are so many sources of wealth. The coal pits in the same country yield every year more than 10,000 chaldrons.

The suburbs of Saumur is situated on the right bank of the Loire, and a well-built bridge of twelve arches leads to the opposite bank. The quay is the most frequented walk, and the principal buildings in that part of the town are a royal riding school, spacious barracks and a theatre. A broad street leads to the declivity of a steep hill on which part of the town has been built. A strong castle rises on the summit of the same height, and it serves at present as a depot for arms and ammunition. The portal of Saint Peter's church is modern, but the rest of the building is very ancient. The town-house is a Gothic edifice at no great distance from the quay, which extends beyond the public walk, and terminates near a fine hospital on the chalky height that commands the town; the neighbouring excavations in the same hill have been converted into a lunatic asylum. Saumur is watered on the west by the Thoue, a small river on which the inhabitants erected of late years a bridge, where general Berton halted very

BOOK CXLIII.

unexpectedly at a time when he might have easily taken the town. Three druidical monuments are situated in the neighbourhood: the one is a natural obelisk that rises vertically to a considerable height;* the two others consist of flat stones heaped above each other, according to antiquaries they are two *crom-lechs* in a good state of preservation;† the smallest stands on a sloping hill, the other, remarkable for its great size, rises in the middle of a plain. Saumur is a place of considerable trade; it employs 600 individuals of both sexes and different ages in a particular department of industry, they make emaux and chaplets, of which the quantity exported may amount in value to L.20,000. Doué, about four leagues distant from the Saumur, is peopled by two thousand inhabitants. It contains the ruins of a Roman amphitheatre in the excavations of a calcareous rock, the remains of an old palace, which, it is supposed, belonged to king Dagobert, and the largest fountain in France. Extensive grottos are situated in the neighbourhood.

Subprefectures.

The road from Saumur to Baugé is nowise remarkable, and the latter town, although the capital of a subprefecture, might be passed over in silence, if it were not for the fine bridge that has lately been erected over the Couesnon. An English army was defeated at no great distance from Baugé in the year 1421. The same district carries on a great trade in paper; thus although Durtal is a small town of 3000 inhabitants, it possesses several paper mills, and the inhabitants manufacture linen, earthen wares and porcelain. Durtal has been admired for its situation on the banks of the Loire, and at the base of a hill commanded by two colossal towers, all that remains of an old castle, that was founded in the eleventh century. The Oudon waters Segré, which although the chief town in a subprefecture, is inferior in population and industry, to the burgh of Chateau-Neuf on the Sarthe, to Pouancé which is enriched by iron works, to Lion d'Angers, worthy of notice for its pic-

* Antiquaries term them peulvens from the Breton word, which signifies a pillar of stone

† Crom-lech signifies literally a raised place.

turesque situation, and to other burghs and towns in the same district.

Angers.

Angers rises on the declivity of a hill at no great distance below the confluence of the Sarthe and the Maine. The ramparts, the public walks, particularly the Turcie and the Champ de Mars, the cathedral with its two steeples rising into the air, a Gothic castle, the ancient residence of the dukes of Anjou, in which eighteen large towers form an imposing mass, may give the town an appearance of splendour that it does not possess. The streets are narrow, some of the houses are built of wood, in others the wood is concealed by a thin covering of slate. It must be confessed, however, that the modern additions made to the town, the quarter near the ramparts, and others are regularly and well built. Angers possesses a library consisting of 26,000 volumes, a valuable collection of French paintings, a museum of natural history, and two theatres. It was a place of some importance before the Roman conquest, it was then called *Juliomagus*, the Romans changed its name afterwards into *Andecavum*. It has given birth to Bernier, the celebrated traveller, and to Menage, a poet and a man of letters, whom Moliere has represented in the character of Vadius.* In the neighbourhood are situated extensive slate quarries, which afford employment to three thousand workmen, and from which nearly eighty millions of slates are obtained every year.

Pont de Ce.

Pont de Cé on the banks of the Loire, about a league distant from Angers, contains only 3000 inhabitants; it may be remarked however for its numerous bridges and embankments, forming a line more than 3000 yards in length, they communicate with different islands and the branches of the river. The remains of a Roman camp occupy a great space, they extend near the confluence of the Mayenne. Ingrande near the road to Nantes possesses glass works in which five hundred workmen are employed. Chalonne a town of 5000 inhabitants, in a district famous for its vineyards, is built near the confluence of the Layon

* See the comedy of the Femmes Savantes.

BOOK CXLIII.

and the Loire; it fronts the Lombardiere islands, where verdant groves and romantic scenery form perhaps the finest landscape on the banks of the Loire. Coal and other mineral substances are worked in the neighbourhood.

Beaupreau

Beaupreau between the same river and the southern limits of the department, is the chief town in a fruitful and industrious district. The inhabitants manufacture linen and woollen stuffs, many of them are employed in dying cloth; they carry on besides a considerable trade in leather. The village of Mont-Jean is almost surrounded by coal mines; the prosperity of Tessouale, another village, depends on its bleach-fields. Chemillè, a small place of 4000 inhabitants, has been enriched by the same manufactures which have rendered Cholet a flourishing town. It was adorned with a fine castle, which was destroyed in common with almost all the other buildings during the war of La Vendee; but it has risen from its ruins, industry has increased, and the population has been doubled; it contains at present more than 7000 inhabitants. The improvements introduced into the manufactories, and the greater demand for their products, are the cause of so much prosperity.

Cholet.

Department of the Lower Loire.

The romantic sites and varied landscapes watered by the Loire, have given the river a celebrity which it might not have otherwise possessed. And certainly the lower part of its course serves to confirm the general opinion, and accounts for the songs that have been made in its praise. Neat villages, picturesque vallies, hills covered with vineyards or rich meadows, may be seen on part of the road to Nantes,—from Montrelais, a village enriched by its coals and excellent wines, to the burgh of Audon, where two chains of hills bound both the banks of the Loire. The appearance of the country changes beyond the last place; the fields are no longer covered with luxuriant harvests, the traveller might suppose himself in Brittany from the ferns, buckwheat and heaths. Lastly, the cathedral of Nantes is seen from a well-cultivated plain about two leagues in length.

Soil and industry of the department.

Many rivers water the department, it is also bathed by the Ocean, the coasts are nearly twenty-five leagues long and they are continually enlarged by alluvial

deposits. It may be remarked too that the salt marshes on the same coasts are very valuable. Different districts in the department are covered with rich pastures and thick forests; it is fruitful in grain, and still more so in wine, it abounds in coal and iron, the inhabitants smelt the ore, and convert the metal into different articles which are sold in many parts of France. The other products of industry in the same department are porcelain, china and different manufactures, it carries on a trade with the principal European states, it equips vessels for the herring, sardel and cod fisheries. The capital, not unworthy of the country, may be ranked among the largest towns in France.

Nantes.

Nantes, after Bordeaux, the most commercial town which communicates with the ocean, rises on the right bank of the Loire, at the place where the Erdre and the Sevre fall into the river. It occupies the site of *Condivicnum*, the principal city inhabited by the *Namnetes;* the ancient Celtic name indicates its position, for it signifies a town *at the confluence of several streams.* It may be admired for the regularity of the streets, the elegance of the public buildings, and the magnificence of the quays. Some quarters, those of Graslin, Feydeau and the suburbs of Fosse, may bear a comparison with the finest in Paris. The verdant banks of the river, the islands in different directions, and the natural amphitheatre above them, render Nantes in point of situation, at least equal if not superior to any other town. The Fosse or the harbour is shaded with lofty trees, and lined with large buildings that extend to the distance of half a league. The same harbour may be about twelve leagues from the ocean, although one of the most frequented in France, it has the disadvantage of being inaccessible to vessels above hundred tons, because the tide does not rise higher than six feet.

The exchange appears like a monument erected to the commerce and shipping of France, it exhibits a fine front adorned with an Ionic peristyle; on the opposite side, a portico is crowned with the statues of Duguay-Trouin, Duquesne, John Bart and Cassart. The prefect's residence was the ancient court of exchequer; the front of the the-

atre forms a range of eight large Corinthian columns. Saint Peter's course, a spacious and pleasant walk on the banks of the Loire, leads to the old castle that belonged to the dukes of Brittany, it was built by one of them in the year 930, it has acquired celebrity from the edict passed by Henry the Fourth, an edict of which the revocation by his grandson was the cause of unnumbered calamities to France. Among the useful institutions, it may be worth while to mention a fine collection of paintings, a valuable public library, a museum of natural history, better than any other in any provincial town, a large botanical garden, a royal college, and lastly schools of medicine and hydrography. The charitable institutions are creditable to the benevolence of the inhabitants, the manner in which they are managed, is not less creditable to the civic rulers. Nantes is the seat of a diocess which was erected in the third century. It was fortified in the time of Cesar, it maintained a terrible siege against the Huns in the year 445; the Normands destroyed it in 845, and put all the inhabitants to the sword. The English besieged it in vain in 1343. A Vendean army consisting of 80,000 men attempted to take it by assault in 1793, they were defeated and repulsed by the citizens. It became at a later period the theatre of the horrible executions which were sanctioned by Carrier. Nantes has given birth to the learned Mathurin Veyssiere, to René-le-Pays, a poet of the seventeenth century, to Boffrand the architect, to Cassart the navigator, to Cacault the diplomatist, to Bouguer the mathematician, and to Fouché, duke of Otranto, and minister of police. It possesses a cannon foundry, dockyards in which merchant vessels and sloops of war are built, it supplies part of the navy with cordage, sailcloth and iron cables; there are besides several sugar works, cotton and cloth manufactories, tan-pits and different works of less consequence.

From the extremity of the department to Nantes, the Sevre waters a country not less romantic than Switzerland, and more interesting from the associations connected with it. The village of Palet was the birthplace of Abeilard; in the woods and rocks in the neighbourhood, Heloise and her lover bewailed their misfortunes after the base Fulbert had sa-

tisfied his monkish vengeance. The small town of Clisson contains only 1200 inhabitants, but it recalls the title of a family that rendered itself illustrious in the annals of France; their castle, formerly remarkable for its architecture, now majestic in its ruins, stands on a height near the town. Paimbeuf, on the left bank of the Loire, about twelve leagues below Nantes, was a hundred years ago a mere hamlet peopled by a few fishermen; but commerce has since changed it into a flourishing and well built city, at present the capital of a district.

Paimbeuf.

The most remarkable places on the south of the Loire have now been mentioned; towards the north and on the right bank of the river is situated Ancenis, a pleasant town, commanded by the old castle which was long inhabited by the dukes of Bethune. Chateaubriant, on the other side of the Don, a small river, is well known for its preserves. Savenay on the south-east of the last place, is the chief town in a district that carries on a considerable trade in cattle and salt. Guerande, an industrious and more populous town, and Pouliguen possessing a convenient harbour, are situated near the saline marshes which yield every year nearly eighteen thousand tons of gray and white salt.

Department of Morbihan.

The word Morbihan, it has been said, signifies *a small sea* in Low-Breton or perhaps in some Celtic dialect. The gulf of the same name is larger than any other on the coasts of the department, which the lower course of the Vilaine separates from the one that has been last examined. The same gulf waters a great many small islands; the two largest or the Ile-aux-Moines and the Arz are well peopled and cultivated. Vannes may be about a league from the most northern bay in the same gulf, two small rivers water and surround it; they add to the convenience of its harbour, and the advantages of its position. According to ancient authors the walls of the town must have been bathed by the sea at the time when it was not only the principal city of the *Veneti*, but the most powerful, wealthy and populous of any in *Armorica*.* An old wall flanked with towers separates the town from a suburbs which exceeds

Vannes.

* Cæsar de Bello Gallico. Lib. III.

BOOK CXLIII.

it in size. The heavy and massive cathedral rises in the midst of dismal houses and dark streets. The freestone quays along the narrow harbour may be admired for their solidity, but the finest buildings are erected on the mole which extends near a small salt marsh. Three public walks are frequented in the vicinity, and within the walls are situated a college, an hospital and a theatre; the industry of the inhabitants is confined to sardel fisheries and to coarse cloth manufactories. Such is the capital of a department which, although poor in vineyards, is fruitful in corn, pastures, timber, lint and hemp. The marshes and landes are without doubt extensive; still the inhabitants rear many horses, oxen and sheep. Iron mines are wrought in different parts of the country, the inhabitants export the leather, linen and woollen stuffs manufactured in the department.

Peninsula of Rhuys.

Sarzeau, on the peninsula of Rhuys, is a small town peopled by 6000 inhabitants, who are mostly fishermen. The castle of Suscinion was erected on the coast by Ann, dutchess of Brittany; and the monastery of Saint Gildas may still be seen on the same peninsula in another part of the coast; according to tradition, the monks possess the chair of Abeilard; it is certain that he was the abbot of the convent.

Islands.

The islands which Pliny calls *Insulæ Veneticæ*, rise opposite the coast between Vannes and Lorient; all of them depend on the department. The inhabitants of Belle-Ile-en-Mer, the largest as well as the richest of these islands, rear cattle, and export every year nearly eight hundred draught horses of the best kind in France. It contains 8000 souls, three small harbours and the burgh of Saint-Palais defended by a castle. A small fortress guards Hoedic, of which the inhabitants, like those in Houat earn their livelihood by fishing. Groix or Groaix, the most northern of these islands, is peopled by 2000 individuals scattered in different villages, they are at once husbandmen and fishers. Quiberon, or as old writers call it *Keberoen*, a peninsula about two leagues in length, and a quarter in breadth, is changed into an island during the full tide. It is celebrated for the descent made in 1795 by 10,000 emigrants under the pro-

Quiberon.

tection of the English fleet; abandoned by allies who might have saved them, they were completely defeated by general Hoche. A monument not very creditable to the English perpetuates the memory of the event.

Carnac.

The burgh of Carnac, at some distance to the north of Quiberon has been often mentioned by antiquaries on account of a druidical monument; the size and the arrangement of the parts have been much admired, its true purpose has never been explained. It is formed by more than five thousand granite stones, rudely cut and arranged into eleven vertical rows. As it has been proved that they were not erected by the Romans to commemorate the victory gained by Cæsar over the Veneti,* it may be perhaps inferred that they were raised for the same superstitious purposes as other Celtic relics of a like kind. The port of Lorient, the chief town in a district of the same name, was built in 1719 by the Indian company at the mouth of the Scorff, on the bay of Port-Louis. The town is large and well built, but it is no longer enriched by the commerce, which excited the jealousy of the English, who attempted to destroy it in 1746, when a nobleman of Brittany,† having arrived with some assistance, displayed so much energy that the besiegers fled and left several cannon behind them, which the king presented to the town. If the harbour now appears more deserted than it really is, it should be recollected that its extent was made to correspond with the importance of the equipments and transactions, which took place when the affairs of the Indian company in France were in a flourishing condition. Port-Louis, about a league's distance to the south of Lorient, rises at the mouth of the Blavet in a situation well adapted for trade. The harbour is convenient, and the citadel which guards the entrance into the bay, was built by Lewis the Thirteenth. The population does not exceed 3000 inhabitants. The old castle of Trafaven stands on the right bank of the Scorff, a castle which the imagination of the peasantry has peopled with sprites and fairies.

Lorient.

Port-Louis.

* See the dissertation by M. Ohier de Grandprè; Memoires de la Societè Royale des Antiquitès de France.

† The Count de Tintenïac.

BOOK CXLIII.

Plöermel.

Ploërmel is situated near the confluence of the Oust and the Malestroit, beyond a chain of high hills, which cross the department from north-west to south-east. It was an important town about the tenth century, but the old edifices were mostly destroyed when it was besieged by Henry the Fourth; there may still be seen, however, a Gothic church, adorned with painted windows and the tombs of two dukes of Brittany, John the Second and John the Third. The waters which fall from a lake nearly three leagues in circumference, at a short distance from the town, form a fine cascade. The Blavet waters the eastern declivities of the same heights, it is navigable to Pontivy, on the left bank of the river, a town in a fruitful country. Now the capital of a district, it bore under the imperial government the name of Napoleonville. It might not be difficult to trace its origin to the monastery in which Saint Josse, the brother of Judicael king of Brittany, died in the year 660. The ruins of the ancient walls, with which it was surrounded, still remain, and also an old castle flanked with turrets, concerning the origin of which antiquaries disagree. The barracks are the finest buildings in Pontivy.

Pontivy.

Department of Finistere.

After the National Assembly decreed that the old divisions of France were to be abolished, and others substituted in their place, it gave the name of Finistere to that part of Brittany which juts into the Ocean, like the promontory on the north-west of Spain, to which the ancients gave the same name *(Promontorium finis terræ)*, because early navigators supposed it the limits of the earth. The department is bounded on the east by those of Morbihan and the Côtes du Nord, on the south and the west by the Ocean, on the north by the Channel. Twenty islands are situated on the coasts, and the indentations in the latter form more than fifteen capes. Shipwrecks are not uncommon; these bold coasts are every where composed of granite masses, against which impetuous billows are dashed. The soil, although moderately fruitful, produces plenty of grain, hemp and lint. The country is well supplied with wood; thick forests grow on the hills, and the vallies are covered with rich pastures. It possesses more valuable

silver and lead mines than any other department in France; it is also perhaps the most humid, or the one in which rains and mists are most common.

The Isole, which flows with the rapidity of a torrent, and joins the Ellé a small and tranquil river, is known in the lower part of its course by the name of the Laita; it falls into the Ocean. Quimperlé situated at the place where the two rivers meet, possesses a small but well frequented harbour inaccessible to vessels above fifty tons. The prosperity of the place may be attributed to its position. The streets are neat and clean, two in particular may be remarked for their elegance; the finest public buildings are a church, the ancient convent of the benedictines, now changed into the subprefect's residence, and a four-sided tower on the high road. It was the birthplace of Morellet, nephew to the celebrated abbot of the same name, and a writer of considerable talent and erudition. Quimper, formerly called *Cornouailles*, was surnamed Quimper-Corentin after Saint Corentin, its first bishop at an uncertain period, perhaps about the beginning of the fifth century, when the town was the capital of the country that formed his diocess. The Romans called it *Corisopitum*, but before their conquest, it bore the Celtic name of *Kimper*, which signifies *a small walled town;* it appears, therefore, that its antiquity cannot be disputed. It is situated on the declivity of a hill at the confluence of the Odet and the Steïre. The most ancient quarter, encompassed with walls and towers, rises like an amphitheatre, and commands a view of a romantic country covered with rocks, woods and heaths. In the modern quarter of Saint Mathieu, the streets are not so narrow, and the houses are better built. The finest public walk extends along the canal of the Odet, which the tide renders navigable to vessels of 300 tons. The town has given birth to several distinguished men, among others to Bougeant and Hardouin, two jesuits; the first composed the admirable *Histoire du Traité de Westphalie*, and also the *Amusemens philosophiques sur le langage des betes*, on account of which his brethren banished him to La Fleche; the second author, more to be pitied for his singularity, than dreaded for any real or imaginary danger arising from his writings, attri-

Quimperlé.

Quimper.

BOOK CXLIII.

buted Virgil's Æneid to a monk of the thirteenth century, and considered the poem an allegorical description of St. Peter's journey to Rome. The same writer maintained that the acts of all the councils anterior to the council of Trent, were false; he was charitable enough to include Mallebranche, Nicole and Pascal in the list of atheists. The jesuits allowed him to repeat these absurdities without molestation. Freron, the ex-jesuit, and Valentin the painter were likewise natives of the town; the latter during the civil dissensions, handled the pencil, the pen and the sword.

Concarneau.

Concarneau, situated in a small island, which communicates with the continent by means of a convenient ferry, is enclosed with walls, and guarded by a castle. It was taken by Duguesclin in 1373. It sends every year about for hundred boats and small vessels to the Sardel fisheries, of which the annual produce may amount to a thousand tons. Douarnenez rivals the last town in the same sort of industry, it is partly peopled by two thousand fishermen and sailors.

Chateaulin

There are no towns of any consequence in the district of Chateaulin; the capital divided into two nearly equal parts by the river Aulne, is pleasantly situated, it was the birthplace of father André and rear-admiral Cosmao, the one obtained some celebrity as the author of a treatise on Man, and an essay on the Beautiful; the other died a few years ago after having distinguished himself in several engagements. The burgh of Huelgoet, and the village of Poullaouen are two other places in the same district; the former is enriched by a mine of argentiferous lead, the other contains 3,600 inhabitants, almost all of whom are employed in working a similar mine, the largest in France, and one of the finest in Europe. It yields about 150 tons of lead, and more than 900 pounds of silver. The machinery used in the works, the founderies and the houses of the miners are not unworthy of being visited. The small and dirty town of Carhaix rises on the right bank of the Hiere at the distance of eleven leagues on the east of Chateaulin. It has produced one of the greatest men of the last century, a worthy descendant of Turenne, the brave La Tour

Carhaix.

d'Auvergne, who was proclaimed first grenadier of France, and who fell in 1799 at the battle of Neuburg.

Brest.

Every stranger who has visited Brest, must have observed the fatiguing and uninterrupted motion which prevails in the port, the vessels that frequent it, displaying the colours of every nation, the imposing aspect of the batteries, which defend the town, the old fortress, according to popular tradition, erected by Cæsar, which guards the entrance, the admirable anchorage communicating with the ocean by the strait of Goulet, an anchorage capable of holding five hundred ships of war; he may also have remarked the naval storehouses, the large arsenal, the barracks on the long esplanade, the cordage and sail manufactories, the large dockyards, and lastly the work-houses which may contain four thousand prisoners or galley-slaves. Brest is built on an eminence, and divided into the high and low town, the latter has been embellished with many modern houses; indeed the quarter of Recouvrance may ere long be compared with the one round the harbour, for it has been found necessary to pull down the ancient Gothic habitations in order that sufficient space may be obtained for new buildings. The steep and crooked streets in the upper town are very disagreeable and difficult of access. The fifth stories of several houses are on a level with the gardens round others, and as the only communications between the old and new quarters are by means of long and open stairs, accidents are not uncommon during frosty weather. A fine machine for masting vessels may be observed at no great distance from the entrance into the harbour. One can hardly behold the solid and extensive quays, the magazines or storehouses built of freestone, which line them, without rendering homage to the genius of Richelieu, by whom they were planned, and who foresaw the advantages that might be derived from the situation of a burgh, which he raised to the rank of a maritime town. It has been supposed, and in all probability correctly, that Brest is not so ancient a place as many believe; it cannot be inferred from the Roman fortress which still remains, that the town existed in the time of Cæsar; besides it may be shown that it was only a village in the ninth century,

BOOK CXLIII.

when king Coron Meriadec erected a castle near it. Lewis Choquet, a poet of the sixteenth century, Rochon a dramatic writer, Lamothe-Piquet and Kersant were born in the capital of Finistere.

The isle of Ouessant may be seen from the coast of Brest; it contains about 1800 inhabitants, who are scattered in several hamlets. The road to the heights in the district of Morlaix, leads to Landernau which, although it has been extolled by an academician, must be considered an ill-built and disagreeable town. Morlaix is not so dirty as other places of the same sort in Brittany; it stands between two hills, and the walls are defended by an ancient castle. The Jarleau and the Kerlent join each other, and pass through the harbour, which may be about two leagues from the sea. Possessing a considerable trade, adorned with several fine edifices, and encompassed with agreeable walks, it cannot be denied that Morlaix is a pleasant and wealthy city. It was the birthplace of general Moreau, a Frenchman who betrayed his country, and was mortally wounded, when commanding the enemies of France. Saint Pol-de-Leon, the metropolis of a district, formerly the seat of a diocess, rises on a hill near the sea. The only buildings worthy of notice are the town-house, the ancient granite cathedral and the steeple of Creesker. The district of which it is the capital, has been long famous for its horses.

Landernau

Morlaix.

St. Pol-de-Leon.

Department of the Cotes du Nord.

Several deep bays and important capes that jut into the Channel, are situated in the department of the Cotes du Nord. The arid, rocky and wild heights of Menez, Arrée and Menebrat are the sources of as many navigable rivers, the Guer, the Trieux and the Gouet. The gentle declivities on the same heights terminate both on the north and the south in sterile sands, which extend to a considerable distance, but plains of great fertility may be seen beyond them, particularly near the coasts. Their products are lint, hemp, different kinds of grain and fruits; in some places the country is covered with vineyards. The mineral riches of the department consist in iron and lead, in granite and slate quarries, lastly in several medicinal springs of greater or less celebrity. The culture of the ground, and the pro-

duce of the fisheries enable many to gain the means of subsistence; but other sorts of industry, the products of manual labour, the *Brittany linens* as they are called, have almost changed the department into a vast manufactory.

Laudeac.

Although the district of which Laudeac is the chief town, and which extends below the southern declivities o the Armorican chain, has been considered the smallest in the department, no less than four thousand linen manufactories are contained in it. The linens are conveyed to Uzel, the mart for the different manufactures. The small town of Lannion stands on the banks of the Guer, near the shores of the sea, in a favourable situation for trade. The river of Treguier serves as a communication between the port of the same name and the Channel. Guingamp on the Trieux may be remarked on account of the fruitful and romantic country in which it is situated.

St. Brieuc.

Saint Brieuc or Saint Brieux contains hardly ten thousand inhabitants, one cannot see therefore without surprise, a public library of 24,000 volumes, a collection of paintings, a theatre, an hospital and a fine granite bridge on the Gouet. It may be added too that there are horse races every year at the beginning of July; the horses that run, must be bred either in the department of the Cotes du Nord, or in the neighbouring departments of Finistere, Morbihan, Lower Loire, Ille and Vilaine. The village of Gué-Saint-Brieuc forms the harbour; the town has its school of hydrography, and an agricultural society. Saint Brieuc was built at irregular intervals round a monastery which dates from the fifth century; the streets are clean and straight, and, according to antiquaries, one of the parish churches now repaired, was originally a druidical temple. Paimpol on the coast, towards the north-west, contains 2000 inhabitants, the harbour is safe and convenient, and the mineral waters are held in some repute. Quintin, near the coast, at the distance of four leagues to the south-west of Saint-Brieuc contains also 2000 inhabitants, it has been long known for its fine linens; on the neighbouring hill are situated a castle of singular architecture, and two *peulvens* or druidical

BOOK CXLIII.

stones twenty-five feet in height, one of which is still erect. The small town of Lamballe on the east of the capital, was probably the ancient city of the *Ambiliates*, a place mentioned by Cæsar.

Dinan.

The district of Dinan is the only other in the department; the town rises on a height near the left bank of the Rance; it has a harbour, from which vessels can communicate during high tides with port Saint Malo. The walls are remarkable both for their height and thickness, but they are overtopped by a strong castle, an ancient residence of the dukes of Brittany. The public walks are extensive and laid out with much taste; but most of the public buildings are not very creditable to the town. Dinan has produced several distinguished men, it may be sufficient to mention Duclos, the secretary of the French academy, and Mahé de Labourdonnaye, who was thrown by an ungrateful country into a dungeon in the Bastille, after having added to the glory of the French arms in India. Although the time in which Dinan was founded, has not been determined, it is certain that it was originally a Celtic city, probably the same which Ptolemy designates by the name of *Dianlitæ*. Mineral springs, which have been of late years much frequented, rise from a valley at a short distance from the walls. The old road to them was almost impracticable, a new and an excellent one has been made by the states of Brittany.

Department of Ille and Vilaine.

The Ille and the Vilaine water a department, the last of those that are included in the ancient province of Brittany. The first river flows from north to south, and unites with the second, which takes first a western direction, and turns afterwards to the south. Like the Cher and the Coesnon, it serves to facilitate the conveyance of goods. Hills extend in different directions, but forests, landes or heaths make up one-half of the country. The banks of the rivers are covered with rich pastures, and the fruitful marsh of Dol, the *Delta* of the department, yields abundant harvests, but even these are hardly adequate to the consumption. The working and smelting of iron, and different manufactories, particularly linen, have diffused wealth among the inhabitants.

St. Malo.

Most of the people in the ancient city of *Aleth*, the modern Saint Servant, were continually exposed during the eleventh century to the attacks of pirates; they were thus compelled to remove to the rock of Aaron, where they founded a small town, which was called Saint Malo after the name of their bishop. The rock on which it stands communicates with the land by means of an embankment; the rough breakers on the north, and many batteries render the access difficult to the enemy. The entrance to the narrow gulf which forms the harbour, is very inconvenient, on both sides are situated numerous shoals, and the waters are suddenly depressed or swollen by the tides, indeed, they have risen more than once to the height of forty-five feet above their ordinary level. The town rises like an amphitheatre, many of the streets are regularly built, and public walks extend round the ramparts. Saint Malo has produced several remarkable men, among others, Duguay Trouin, James Cartier, who discovered Canada, Maupertuis, a geometer and natural philosopher, La Mettrie, a physician, who was banished and died in exile because he doubted the immortality of the soul, lastly, the Abbé Troublet,—an indefatigable compiler. Saint Servant, not more than half a league from Saint Malo, is a neat modern town with two harbours, the one set apart for merchant vessels, the other for those in the service of government. Cancale on the coast, at the distance of three leagues from Saint Servant, supplies different places with oysters. Although the church of Dol may be compared with any other in the department, the town itself does not contain more than four thousand inhabitants.

Fougueres.

The road from Saint Malo to Paris passes through Fougueres, which was almost destroyed by fires during the last century, calamities which account for it being at present one of the best built towns in the department. The public walks command a view of the neighbouring country, the fruitful valley watered by the Nançon, and meadows varied by groves; a fine forest in which are contained several druidical monuments, extended formerly beyond the village of Landeau, where the cellars may be still seen that were dug in the twelfth century by Raoul, count of

BOOK CXLIII

Fougueres, in order that his treasures might be hid from Henry the Second of England, but the monarch was more active than his enemy, for he seized the booty before it was concealed. Fougueres has been long famous for different dies, particularly for a scarlet, of which the brilliancy has been attributed to the quality of the waters in the Nançon. The sinuous course of the Vilaine leads to Redon, an agreeable and well built town, that carries on a considerable trade with Rennes; it possesses a harbour for vessels under two hundred and fifty tons. Two small towns, Renac and Bain, are situated in the district, of which Redon is the capital; cheeses little inferior to those of Gruyeres are exported from the one, and the department is supplied with serge from the manufactories in the other. Three other districts remain to be described, their chief towns are Montfort-sur-Meu, Rennes and Vitré; it may perhaps be worth while to add that they are all situated under the same parallel; the old fortifications in the first of these places are not wholly destroyed. The most important iron works in Brittany are those of Paimpont, a village about five leagues distant from Montfort-sur-Meu. The inhabitants of Plelan-le Grand, another flourishing village, manufacture linens, thread, and other articles. These two villages are three times more populous than the chief town in the district.

Montfort-sur-Meu.

Public walks on the banks of the Vilaine, communicate with Rennes, the capital of the department. The upper town or finest part of the city, has been so called to distinguish it from the lower, situated on the left bank of the river, and not unfrequently liable to inundations. The philosophical author of the treatise on Compensations, has omitted to state that many towns might not have been improved or embellished, had it not been for the devastations occasioned by fire. Thus, in the month of December 1720, all the upper part of Rennes was laid in ashes by a conflagration, which lasted several days; but the finest quarter of the city was built in consequence of that calamity. The court of justice stands in a square, which may be compared with any other in France; the houses that enclose it, are adorned with Corinthian pillars, that accord well with the architecture of the principal building. The different halls in the court are

Rennes.

Buildings. Vitré.

ornamented with paintings by Jouvenet and other French artists. The town-house, a larger and finer edifice than the last, forms nearly one of the sides in another square shaded by lofty lime trees. One of the wings has been set apart for the commercial tribunals, and also for a public library, containing seventeen thousand volumes. Some of the works in the gallery of paintings are attributed to the great Italian masters; it is situated near the botanical garden, which contains many rare plants, and forms one of the most agreeable walks in the town. The useful institutions or the places connected with instruction are an academy, a royal college, a scientific society; and, lastly, schools of medicine, law, and the fine arts. Rennes is not only the seat of a court, but also the chief town in a diocess; it has produced several great men, among others René de La Blettrie the historian of Julian the apostate, Tournemine the jesuit, a person of great erudition, Caradeuc de la Chalottais, whose name is generally associated with the expulsion of the jesuits, and the principal events that preceded the revolution, Saint Foix, the author of the essays on Paris, and Lanjuinais, a member of the convention, afterwards raised to the peerage; his eloquent speeches in the revolutionary assembly were much admired; in his various public employments he conducted himself as an enlightened philosopher and a virtuous citizen. The large prison in the ancient capital of Brittany, serves as a place of confinement to the culprits in the four departments subject to the jurisdiction of the royal court. If the canal between Rennes and Saint Malo were finished, the trade of the town might be much improved. It may be almost unnecessary to mention that the capital of Brittany was connected with many important events in the history of France. The parliament of Rennes was instrumental in bringing about the convocation of the states-general in 1789. The inhabitants took arms for and against the king at different periods during the league. In the fourteenth century, Duguesclin forced the English under the command of Lancaster, to abandon the siege; but at a period anterior to the French monarchy, even in the time of the Romans, several antiquities still preserved within the

BOOK CXLIII.

walls, prove that the town must have been an important place. The masters of the world called it *Rhedones*, because it was the chief town in the country inhabited by the people of the same name. It was called *Condate* by the Celts before the Roman conquest, probably on account of its position at the confluence of the Ille and Vilaine. The hamlet of La Prevalaye is not more than half a league from Rennes; the neighbouring country has been long famous for its butter, which is said to be better than any other in France, it is mostly consumed in Paris.

Vitré, the only other place in the department that remains to be described, cannot be said to be either a clean or well-built town. It might almost be supposed that it had been made the capital of a district, because the states of Brittany assembled there before the revolution. The house in which Madame de Sevigné used to reside while the states sat, perhaps the finest in the town, would be considered a very ordinary building elsewhere. On the whole, Vitré resembles an ancient Armorican city, but some antiquarians imagine that they have discovered the remains of Roman edifices. It was the birthplace of Savary, the author of letters on Egypt. The neighbouring country has been much admired, and of late years much frequented on account of medicinal springs. Strangers visit the barony of Rochers, and the old castle flanked with towers, in which, it is said, several articles are carefully preserved, that belonged to the celebrated person, whose correspondence has become classical in French literature.

Department of Mayenne.

The Mayenne waters the department of the same name in all its extent from north to south; the soil and the vegetable productions are the same as in the last, the vallies are fruitful in grain, but the vine gives place to the apple tree. Herds of oxen, and flocks of sheep may be seen in all the rural districts, and the peasants find the rearing of bees a profitable employment. The industrious classes manufacture lint, hemp and cotton.

Laval.

The stranger looks in vain at Laval for straight or broad streets and houses at all worthy of an industrious and wealthy city. Situated between two mountains, which enclose a fine valley, the Mayenne divides it into two parts,

and waters a country as agreeable as the town is the reverse. The old and clumsy walls were built about the tenth century, when the town and the territory attached to it, were erected into a barony, which was made over in 1218 to a branch of the house of Montmorency; it became afterwards a county during the reign of Charles the Seventh. The old castle that belonged to the dukes of Laval, rises in the middle of the town, on the banks of the river; it has been long used as a prison. The linen mart, a large and lofty edifice, was built by the dukes of La Trimouille, who succeeded those of Montmorency. The linens of Laval have been held in great repute for more than five hundred years; that branch of industry was first introduced by Guy the Eighth, count of Laval, after his marriage with Beatrice of Flanders, from which country many weavers migrated and settled in the town. The fact, however, is little known by the townspeople, who in gratitude ought to have erected a monument to the great promoter of their prosperity. The public library consists of 25,000 volumes, the town has produced several distinguished men, but none perhaps more eminent than Ambroise Paré, the father of surgery in France.

Chateau Gonthier.

The Mayenne waters the three principal towns in the department, and it may be necessary to remark that two of them, Chateau Gonthier and Mayenne are six leagues distant from Laval, the one on the north, the other on the south. Thus, their relative situation tends to facilitate their commerce with each other. If the streets in Chateau Gonthier were straight, it might be an agreeable residence; it is separated from the principal suburbs by the river; the great charm of the public walks consists in the view along the basin of the Mayenne; the banks are shaded with walnut trees and orchards, or covered with meadows, and commanded by heights that contribute much to the beauty of the scenery. Craon, a small town of 3000 inhabitants, about four leagues to the west of Chateau Gonthier, was the birthplace of the celebrated Volney. Although the streets of Mayenne are narrow and crooked, the cleanliness of the houses may convince the stranger that he is no longer in the ancient province of Brittany. It was erected into a titular dutchy by Charles the Ninth in favour of Charles of Lor-

Mayenne.

BOOK CXLIII.

raine, who became in consequence duke of Mayenne. The ancient castle inhabited by the same duke and his successors, may still be considered one of the greatest ornaments to the town.

Department of Sarthe.

The Sarthe, which gives its name to a department contiguous on the east to that of Mayenne, crosses it from north to south, and waters very fruitful lands, until it joins the Huysne; there the soil changes, and all the space between the river and the Loire is covered with sandy and sterile heaths. Wines of an ordinary quality, grain in sufficient abundance for the wants of the inhabitants, rich pastures, numerous flocks, iron and coal mines make up the territorial wealth in the department of Sarthe.

Mamers.

The small town of Mamers may be first mentioned, because it is situated in the most northern district of the department. It was probably founded a short time after the arrival of the Franks into Gaul; the Normans fortified it at a later period, and it was afterwards embellished with public walks, fountains and different buildings. Although Ferté Bernard contains only 2500 inhabitants, it possesses linen manufactories together with several corn and felt mills, which are moved by the Huysne and the Mene. The inhabitants have formed by subscription a public library, a proof that industry is accompanied with the desire of knowledge.

Mans.

The capital is advantageously situated near the centre of the department; seven high roads terminate at Mans, and the lofty trees that shade them, add to the beauty of the neighbourhood. Narrow and crooked streets paved with pebbles, and almost inaccessible to carriages, indicate the antiquity of the quarter on the right bank of the Sarthe. The upper town is more modern, the houses are built of freestone, and covered with slates; but most of the public buildings are situated in the New Quarter, the finest part of the city. The cathedral was built at irregular intervals; a period of not less than six hundred years elapsed from the time it was commenced until it was finished; it forms a combination of Roman and Gothic architecture, very interesting to those who study the history of the art. Rows of stone alternate with rows of brick; the arcades in the interior, and the ogees in the exterior produce a singular effect, which

accords well with the dazzling colour of the Gothic windows. The mausoleum of William de Bellay, viceroy of Piemont during the reign of Francis the First, a good general and an able diplomatist, may be considered the principal ornament in the interior. The house that belonged to Scarron, after he became one of the prebends in Mans, is situated at no great distance from the cathedral. The site of a Roman amphitheatre may be seen on the walk of the Jacobites, a walk shaded with lime trees, and bounded by terraces. The same town, the ancient *Suindinum*, was the capital of the country of the *Cenomani*; after the Roman conquest it was the second city in the third *Lyonensis*. It was one of the principal towns in France in the time of Charlemagne; the Normans by whom it was almost ruined, made themselves twice masters of it. It was several times taken and retaken by the Vendean and Republican armies; the market place was changed into a field of battle on the 13th of December 1793, when the soldiers of La Vendee yielded in the darkness of the night and after much slaughter, to the troops commanded by Westermann and Marceau, against whom they had defended themselves during the whole of the day.* The wax lights made at Mans are said to be the best in the kingdom, but that branch of industry is not confined to the capital of the department; the same articles are sent to Paris from some districts in the neighbourhood, and from Suze, a small town of 1800 inhabitants, on the banks of the Sarthe near the extremity of the landes.

Saint Calais.

Encompassed with forests and sandy plains, the Anille waters a town which bore the same name as the river until the sixth century, when a Saint-Calais founded a monastery, and gave his name to the town. An old church, a large square and two public walks are the greatest ornaments to the place. Besides the commerce arising from the linen manufactures, it carries on a considerable trade in grain. The inhabitants in the industrious burgh of Bessé, about three leagues towards the south, find employment in different manufactories, in dying cloth, in making paper and wax candles. In the same district, beyond the southern extremi-

* See the Memoires de La Rochejaquelein.

BOOK CXLIII.

ty of the landes, nature—abounding in contrasts, has embellished the rich valley of the Loire; fields covered with grain, leguminous plants and fruits, hills adorned with vineyards that yield the only good wine in the department, fruitful orchards and rich meadows are united with romantic scenery. The chalky hills, cut into terraces on the banks of the Loire, form a very singular appearance; houses of two stories are thus raised from the excavations, the chimneys pass upwards to the fields, and clouds of smoke are exhaled from them. Chateau-du-Loire rises on one of these heights; industry and commerce have enabled the inhabitants to substitute new and commodious houses for old and inconvenient habitations, the town has been gradually renewed, and although it contains at present only 3000 souls, it possesses a good classical seminary, an hospital, a theatre and public baths.

La Fleche.

Passing through the same sort of country, the Loire flows below the small but neat town of Lude; at a greater distance, La Fleche, a comparatively wealthy city, rises on the right bank; it appears however that the inhabitants might be more industrious, for they have only one manufactory of black veils for nuns, two of glue, and some leather works. It is well enough built, and the public library contains 22,000 volumes; but this chief town in a sub-prefecture has acquired additional importance from the college founded by Henry the Fourth, and changed several years ago into a school for six hundred pupils, four hundred of whom receive a military education at the expense of government. Prince Eugene, the celebrated Descartes and Picard the astronomer were educated at the college of La Fleche. Sablé at the confluence of the Erve and the Sarthe, is the last place of any consequence in the western region of France; a fine bridge of black marble obtained from the quarries in the vicinity, is without doubt the greatest ornament to the town.

BOOK CXLIV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Kingdom of France. Third Section. Central Region.

The thirteen departments which make up the central region of France, formed eight provinces in the ancient monarchy: Orleanais fruitful in corn and in vines, Touraine called the garden of France, Berri abounding in cattle, Nivernais, Bourbonnais and Marche, each of them enriched by commerce, Limousin, whose inhabitants supply by their industry the disadvantages of an ungrateful soil, and lastly, Auvergne, where the low lands are productive, and the high, although not fruitful in grain, afford good pasturage. The same region does not differ widely from the last in extent of surface, and in the means of education provided for the people, but it is far inferior to it in the number of inhabitants, for the 4,195 square leagues that compose it, are only peopled by 3,789,000 individuals, which on an average does not amount to 910 persons to every square league. Thus it appears to be even more thinly peopled than the southern region; although no very favourable opinion can be inferred from such results, still this portion of France contains within itself so many resources, so much that may contribute to the expansion of industry, that its present depressed state cannot render an account of it uninteresting.

Department of Indre and Loire.

Almost all Touraine, one of the smallest ancient provinces, forms at present the department of Indre and Loire,

BOOK CXLIV.

which these two rivers, the Cher, the Claise and the Vienne traverse from east to west. The mildness of the climate, the fruitful valleys, the romantic banks of the Loire, on which the scenery has not been too much extolled by poets, and the varied productions inadequately described by geographers, render the country one of the most delightful in France. But the celebrity that has been conferred on the whole department, strengthened by the repetition of the same praises, may be reduced or more correctly estimated after a minute examination. If the traveller leave the banks of the Loire, or the majestic course bounded by heights, covered with vineyards, castles or villages, and pass through the valleys watered by the other streams that have been mentioned, he may observe large heaths or desert plains, and discover that a region apparently so rich, which has been compared to the promised land, which supplies France and other countries with different fruits, does not furnish a sufficient quantity of grain for the consumption of the inhabitants. Thus, the rich banks of the Loire may be said to resemble one of those magnificent frames which deceive the ignorant, and enhance in their opinion the value of a picture.

The following passage concerning Touraine, appears in a work that was published about forty years ago.*

Former prosperity of Touraine.

"The province was formerly enriched by different manufactures, such as leather, cloth, silk and ribbons; but all of them have fallen into decay; those of cloth and leather are no longer worked. The silk looms amounted in the sixteenth century to eight thousand, the number of mills to seven hundred, and the individuals who found employment in manufacturing silk, to more than forty thousand, but at present they do not exceed two thousand. Of three thousand ribbon looms, fifty are all that now remain." The impolitic revocation of the edict of Nantes, and duties equivalent to prohibitions on foreign trade, have been so fatal to the department, that it has not participated in the immense progress that French industry has made during the last twenty years. The cloth, carpet and cotton manufac-

* Encyclopedie Methodique, Dictionnaire geographique—article Touraine.

tories, the paper mills and leather works are without doubt both more numerous and important than they were fifty years ago, but they are not nearly so productive as might have been reasonably anticipated."

Tours.

The state of the department justifies these reflections, although few towns in the kingdom can be compared with Tours on the banks of the Loire. The entrance into it is very imposing. A circus leads to one of the best built bridges in Europe, terminating in a spacious court that communicates with the Royal street, the finest in the town, and inferior to none in any other. Broad, straight, lined with large houses, public buildings or well furnished shops, it joins the road to Poitiers, in which a long range of lofty trees extends to a green hill, surmounted with ruins, forming an admirable perspective. Near the same bridge, but in an opposite direction, is situated the Tranchée, an excellent road, cut across a height, and bounded by a verdant talus and different buildings; it leads to the telegraph, not an uninteresting object, but very different from the ancient ruins that crown the other hill. The Royal street extends through the broadest part of the town; several straight and modern streets cross it; but the old quarters consist of narrow and crooked lanes. The cathedral is an admirable Gothic edifice, the nave is remarkable for its size and ornaments, the windows in the choir display the most dazzling colours. A very precious monument of the regeneration of art may be seen within the same building, it is the tomb of Charles the Eighth and Anne of Brittany, his wife. The public library is one of the best and most valuable in France: it contains more than 30,000 volumes, a great many copies of rare editions, numerous manuscripts, among others, the Hours of Charles the Fifth, those of Queen Anne of Brittany, and a book of the gospels, written in gold letters, on which the kings of France used to swear in the capacity of abbots and canons of Saint Martin's church, where it was formerly preserved. The collection of paintings was removed a short time ago to a more commodious gallery; they are sufficiently numerous and of various styles, some of them are by the greatest masters. Tours possesses a medical society, another of agriculture,

and a third of arts and sciences; the last boasts of some distinguished members. Several celebrated men have been born in the town, we may mention Destouches, a dramatic writer, Dutens, the author of different valuable works on numismatics, and the canon Grecourt, whose licentious poems find but few admirers in the present day. The period in which Tours was founded, has not been ascertained; Ptolemy mentions it by the name of *Cæsarodunum*, a name that was derived from the conqueror of the Gauls; but it is not less certain that the *Turones* had no capital at the time Cæsar entered their country. Can the Roman general be considered the founder of a town, which a short time after the conquest was of some importance, which afterwards became the capital of the third Lyonnaise, and of which the name was distinguished by a Celtic termination? It is known besides that the termination *dunum* indicates invariably a position on a height. Tours then, although at present on the left bank, was originally on the right bank of the Loire, perhaps on the very eminence where the telegraph has been erected.

Amboise.

Amboise, the ancient *Ambacia*, at five leagues on the east of Tours, has been considered by its townsmen, a place of greater antiquity, but the honors which they claim, are at best doubtful. Peopled by five thousand five hundred souls, memorable from events connected with the troublous times of French history, it is as ill built as at the period when Lewis the Eleventh instituted in its old castle the order of Saint Michael. Charles the Eighth was born and died in the same edifice, there too the conspiracy against the Guises proved abortive, a family that contributed by their intrigues to make the catholics and protestants of the same country, two hostile people, that first rendered popular the reproachful epithet of Huguenots, by which reformed Christians have been since designated. One old tower in the castle rises to the height of eighty-four feet, a spiral stair leads to the summit, and commands a view of the rich landscapes that bound the Loire and the Cher. A well built bridge, finished in 1822, crosses the river and communicates with the road to Paris. Chateau-Renault, situated on the north of Amboise, is divided into the upper

Chateau-Renault.

and lower town; the burgh of Saint Paterne at no great distance eastwards, contains 2000 inhabitants and more than twenty manufactories of woollen and linen stuffs. One of the streams that fall into the Loire, waters the small town or rather burgh of Luynes, which was erected into a titular dutchy by Lewis the Thirteenth in favour of the constable D'Albert. It possesses a large hospital and several lace manufactories. Habitations similar to those that have been remarked in a neighbouring department, are dug in the depths of chalky rocks, and the ground above them is covered with rich vineyards. Paul Lewis Courier, one of the most profound hellenists in France, and not less distinguished as a civilian, was born in the neighbourhood.

Langeais.

The small town of Langeais at some leagues from Luynes, carries on a trade in linen stuffs and earthen ware; it consists of a single street, and contains 2500 inhabitants. The old Gothic castle is still in a good state of preservation; it was built in the eleventh century; the articles according to which Brittany was united to France, and the marriage contract between Anne and Charles the Eighth, were signed in one of the halls on the ground floor. The other parts of the building have been changed into a prison. Although the town is included in the district of Chinon, it is separated from it by the Loire, the Cher and the Indre. The last town or Chinon carries on a considerable trade in wines and also in the excellent prunes produced in the district. The walls which encompass it, are all that remain of the old fortifications. The venerable ruins of an ancient castle adorn the town; it was there that Henry the Second of England died in 1189; Joan of Arc presented herself in the same place before Charles the Seventh, and offered to deliver France from a foreign yoke. Chinon was the birthplace of the celebrated curate of Meudon. The minister of Lewis the Thirteenth changed Richelieu, then a mere village, into a town; he embellished it with a castle, which has been since destroyed. The houses and streets are built with great regularity. La Haye on the banks of the Creuse, has been surnamed Descartes after the celebrated philosopher who was born within its walls, and whose house and modest furniture are still preserved with scrupulous care. Loches, the

Chinon.

La Haye Descartes.

BOOK. CXLIV.

Loches.

chief town in a district, that produces in abundance the excellent plums, which the French call the plums of Tours, rises like an amphitheatre on the left of the Indre. The four-sided tower which commands it, was built by the Romans; it formed part of the castle in which Agnes Sorel used the empire of her charms to inspire her royal lover with the desire of glory. The building was converted into a state prison by Lewis the Eleventh, and the cardinal Balue, one of his ungrateful favourites, was confined there during eleven years, in an iron cage. The tomb of Agnes Sorel, which Lewis the Sixteenth removed from the choir in the church of Loches to another part of the building, was afterwards placed in the residence of the subprefect; the epitaph attests that she was *charitable to all, giving largely of her wealth to the church and the poor.*

Department of Loire and Cher.

Blois, Vendome and Romarantin are the three principal towns in the department of the Loire and Cher, a low and uniform country, but in some places varied by hills, and covered with vineyards, where the eye rests with pleasure. The soil is much more fruitful in some parts than in others; the lands on the north of the Loire are very fertile, but on the south of the river, marshes, heaths and forests cover a third part of the soil. The country yields more corn than the inhitants require, fruits and leguminous plants of every sort, a great quantity of hemp, naval timber, and some good wines, particularly those of the Côte du Cher. Many sheep and oxen are reared; the turf pits are by no means unprofitable; iron mines are worked, and the silex on the chalky hills forms a branch of commerce. As a manufacturing department, it is not inferior to the last.

Blois.

Different remains of antiquity render it probable that Blois was founded before the Roman conquest; and in it, as in all the ancient French towns, the oldest buildings are situated on a height, and form so many narrow and steep streets; modern houses are erected below them, they extend to the quay on the right bank of the Loire, to the bridge of eleven arches, adorned with a lofty pyramid, and communicating with the suburbs. The last portion of the city is well built, and the views which extend from it in different directions, are likely to impress

strangers with a favourable idea of the situation. The ancient church of the jesuits, built after the plans of Mansard, the Roman aqueduct dug in the rock, the public library, the prefect's palace on an eminence, the long walk which terminates in a large forest, are certainly ornamental to any city, but all of them are less imposing than the old castle, where the good Lewis the Twelfth was born, which was inhabited by Francis the First and Charles the Ninth; and where too, during the last meeting of the states under Henry the Third, the Duke of Guise, and the cardinal were assassinated by order of the king, who was himself afterwards murdered by a bigot. The curious repair to the village of Chambord about four leagues distant, in order to see a castle which was built in the reign of Francis the First after the plans of Primatice; the monarch employed 1800 workmen during twelve years, his successors followed his example, and the edifice was completed by Lewis the Fourteenth. Although an irregular assemblage of towers and turrets, it is one of the most imposing Gothic buildings in France. A double spiral stair in the interior has been often admired, one person may mount and another descend it without seeing each other. The park round the castle is enclosed by a wall seven leagues in circumference. This fine domain was the residence of king Stanislas; Lewis the Fifteenth ceded it afterwards to the Marshal de Saxe, who died there in the year 1750. Napoleon presented it to the prince of Wagram; lastly, having been purchased by means of a national subscription, it became the appanage of the duke of Bordeaux. Saint-Aignan on the banks of the Cher, carries on a considerable trade in cloth and in flints, which are cut in the neighbourhood.

Chambord.

Ten manufactories render the small town of Romarantin a place of some importance; and it may be mentioned as a proof of its prosperity, that it has lately been embellished with several new streets. It is celebrated in history on account of the edict that was past by the chancellor de l'Hopital, an edict that saved France from the horrors of the inquisition. The Loire divides itself into several branches near Vendome, which stands below a hill covered

Romarantin.

Vendome.

BOOK CXLIV.

with fruitful vineyards. The town is well built, and the college is not inferior in point of architecture to any in France; the finest buildings are those in the vicinity of the horse-barracks, and no view near the town can be compared with the one, which may be seen from the ruins of the ancient castle. Vendome was the birthplace of the poet Ronsard.

Department of Eure and Loire.

A flat country, in some places narrow valleys, in others extensive and fruitful plains watered by different rivers, of which the largest are the Eure and the Loire, make up the department of the same name, in an agricultural point of view, one of the most productive in France. It is formed by the greater part of the ancient Beauce and Perche. It furnishes corn in sufficient abundance for the consumption of the inhabitants, and exports besides a great quantity to Paris and the neighbouring departments. It has been proved by official returns, that the grain raised in Eure and Loire, is three times greater than the average produce of the French departments. The inhabitants rear numerous flocks and herds; the quantity of wool exceeds twice the mean quantity in the other departments, and the same may be said of the number of horses that are bred in the country.* As the agricultural products are so abundant, it may be supposed that the inhabitants are not engaged in other occupations, but all the branches of industry are mutually connected with each other; thus, the mines furnish materials to several important iron works, and the wool, to cloth and different manufactories. It may be unnecessary to mention the vineyards, as all the wines are of ordinary quality; the quantity produced may be equal to 20,000 tuns; cider, however, is a very common beverage in different parts of the country.

Nogent-le-Rotrou.

The department of Eure and Loire contains four districts; Nogent-le-Rotrou is the chief town in one of them; the houses are mostly well-built, it stands in a fruitful valley watered by the Huysne and the Arcise; the latter turns several mills, and forms a cascade near the town. The Gothic castle, which commands Nogent, need not be men-

* Forces productives et commerciales de la France par M. Cha. Dupin.

tioned on account of its architecture, but it may be remarked that it was the residence of Sully. Senonches is an industrious burgh, the inhabitants carry on a trade in machinery and agricultural implements. Maillebois has several cloth manufactories; the other places in the district are too insignificant to require notice.

Dreux.

It would be a waste of time to inquire whether Dreux derives its name from the Druids or from Dryus, the fourth king of the Gauls, more particularly as the antiquity of the town cannot be disputed, as it is known that it was called *Durocasses* before the Roman conquest, a name which was afterwards changed into *Drocæ*, and lastly into Dreux. The inhabitants carry on a trade in leather, printed cottons, woollen stuffs, stockings and hats, all of which they themselves manufacture. Rotrou the poet, Philidor the musician and celebrated chess player were born in the town. The battle in which the troops of Charles the Ninth took the prince of Condé prisoner, was fought under the walls in 1562. The ruins of the ancient castle that was inhabited by the counts of Dreux are still seen on a neighbouring height. The burgh of Anet may be about three leagues on the north of Dreux; it was near it that Henry the Second built a noble residence for Diana of Poitiers, his mistress; what remains of it enables us to form some notion of what it must have been; it may be considered a monument of the foolish passion that the king had for a women who was not always faithful to him, and who was the cause of many disasters to France.

Burgh of Anet.

Epernon in the district of Chartres, may contain about fourteen hundred inhabitants; it rises in a pleasant valley. Maintenon, somewhat more populous and still more agreeably situated than Epernon, was the native town of Colin d'Harleville. The castle or the finest edifice was built in the sixteenth century; limpid streams water the park that surround it; there Lewis the Fourteenth raised an aqueduct, now in ruins, in order to transport the waters of the Eure to Versailles, for that purpose he employed during several years more than sixty thousand soldiers, and a great many workmen. Several Druidical monuments are situated in a plain beyond the park, the country people call

Maintenon.

BOOK CXLIV.

them the stones of Gargantua. Dirty and mean villages extend in different directions in the country between Maintenon and the capital of the department; they are built in the same manner as were those belonging to the *Carnutes* in Cæsar's time; they consist of wretched hovels without windows, and made of clay mixed with straw, but what is very remarkable, the peasants who inhabit them, are not indigent.

Chartres.

The two towers in the cathedral of Chartres may be seen from the heights in the neighbourhood of Maintenon, they might be mistaken for two lofty obelisks. A small wood, all that remains of the ancient forest inhabited by the chief of the Druids, is almost contiguous to Chartres. The Eure which flows below it, was the Celtic *Autur*, and the Latin *Autura*, hence the town was called *Autricum*, but the ancients designated it also by the name of *Carnutum*. An elegant square adorns the lower part, which is mostly well-built, but the higher is formed by steep and irregular streets; in one of the narrow courts may be observed a monument erected to the memory of general Marceau, in every way unworthy of the young hero, whose ashes repose in a foreign land, and whose tomb was respected by the enemies he had defeated. The cathedral is the most remarkable edifice in Chartres; it stands on the summit of the town, and the towers rise to a great height. It was founded in the eleventh century, it was there that Saint Bernard excited his hearers to engage in the second crusade; at a later period Henry the Fourth was crowned in the same place. Among the ornaments may be mentioned a white marble figure of the Virgin by Coustou, and, in one of the small chapels, another Virgin with the infant Jesus. The last group and the relics of Saint Vast are held in great veneration by the people.

Collections

The most valuable collections in the town, are a museum of natural history, and a public library consisting of 30,000 volumes and more than 700 manuscripts. Chartres has produced several distinguished men; we may mention Desportes and Regnier his nephew, two poets of the sixteenth century, Andrew Felibien, an author of considerable erudition, Thiers, better known as a critic

than a theologian, Peter Nicole, an eminent writer of Port-Royal, Brissot de Warville and Petion de Villeneuve, two members of the Convention, the virtuous defenders of the unfortunate queen. The old ramparts of Chartres have been changed into public walks, they communicate with the lower part of the town; the gates are adorned with triumphal arches, and one of them flanked with turrets communicated with the drawbridge which was lowered before Henry, the Fourth. The road to Brittany passes through Courville, a small city about four leagues to the west of Chartres. Sully died in the neighbouring castle of Villebon, an elegant and well preserved Gothic edifice of the sixteenth century,

Chateaudun.

The banks of the Loire lead to Bonneval, a burgh of seventeen hundred inhabitants, who carry on a trade in cotton, woollen stuffs and leather; broad, straight and clean streets indicate the wealth of the people. Chateaudun on the banks of the same river, was destroyed by fire in 1723, a calamity which has contributed much to its improvement; it is at present one of the finest towns in France. It has been made the capital of a district, it contains a townhouse, a public library and a college. The market-place must be considered the greatest ornament to the town both on account of its size, and the number of public buildings; a pleasant walk extends along the peaceful banks of the Loire, bounded by natural grottos, which have been converted into habitations for the peasantry. A castle rises on a rock that commands the river; it belonged to the counts of Dunois, it was built in the tenth century; there is not perhaps another edifice of the same date in France that can be compared with it.

Department of Loiret, Orleans.

A well-made road through no very picturesque country, leads from Chateaudun to Orleans, the chief town in a department, of which the name has been derived from the Loiret, a small river hardly three leagues in length from its source to its junction with the Loire, it is navigable the distance of a league; it has never been known to freeze, an advantage which renders it useful in more than one branch of industry. According to Lancelot and D'Anville, the ancient capital of Orleanais was originally called *Genabum*.

BOOK CXLIV.

Strabo informs us that the *Carnutes* held their principal markets there; it was embellished by the emperor Aurelian, who gave it the name of *Aurelianum*. It might have been destroyed in the year 450 by Attila, had it not been for the courage of the Roman general Aetius, who drove the Huns to the plains of Champagne, where he gained a complete victory over them. It fell into the power of Clovis after the destruction of the Roman empire; it became after the death of Clovis, the capital of one of the kingdoms into which France was divided. Philip of Valois erected it into a dutchy in favour of his son; having been united to the domains of the crown at the accession of Lewis the Twelfth, it was made by Lewis the Thirteenth, the appanage of his brother Gaston, and afterwards of Philip, the brother of Lewis the Fourteenth; but the revenues were abolished during the regency, the title only has been retained. Orleans was the birthplace of king Robert, a distinguished scholar, and the author of several hymns, some of which are still sung in the churches; it was also the native town of the jesuit Petau, perhaps the most learned critic of his age, of Amelot de la Houssaye, an able commentator, and lastly of Pothier, the celebrated jurist. It stands at the extremity of a lofty plain, which terminates near the banks of the Loire, and at no great distance from a bridge that communicates with the road to Bourges. The extent of the suburbs, where the stranger enters on the road from Paris, and the number of well-built houses contained in it, indicate the opulence of a large city. The monument on the square of Martroy was completed in 1803, and dedicated to Joan d'Arc; the town has thus paid a tribute of gratitude to the heroine, who compelled the English to raise the siege in 1426. The finest street in Orleans is the one which leads from the same square to the bridge on the Loire. The cathedral was commenced by Henry the Fourth, and not continued until the reign of Lewis the Sixteenth; although still in an unfinished state, it may be considered a model of architecture. The old ramparts have been converted into broad streets.

Scientific institutions

As the seat of an university, Orleans is a place of some importance; the transactions published every year by the

society of arts and sciences are not without merit; the botanical garden contains many valuable plants; the collection of paintings is superior to most of the same kind in the provincial towns. Although there are several rare works in the library, the total number of volumes does not exceed twenty-six thousand. The commerce of Orleans was formerly more flourishing than at present, the sugar works yielded greater profits; a greater number of hands were employed in the shawl manufactories, but the difference in the other products of industry is less perceptible; the demand for cottons, woollen stuffs, flannels and fine cloths is at present almost as great as at any former period. Orleans was one of the first towns in France, in which steam engines were substituted for human labour in the spinnihg manufactories. The products of the neighbouring vineyards are converted into excellent vinegar, which forms no inconsiderable part of the Orleans trade. The situation of the town on the banks of a large river may contribute to restore it to its ancient prosperity. The present commercial decline, whatever it may be, can only be imputed to the rivalry of other places in the same branches of industry.

Commerce.

The other towns or burghs in the same district may be shortly enumerated. Olivet on the Loiret was well known on account of an abbey, supposed to have been founded by Clovis. Francis, duke of Guise, was assassinated there, while he was making preparations for a siege against Orleans. The population of the burgh may amount at present to three thousand souls. Meun was the birthplace of John, surnamed *Clopinel*, on account of his lameness, he enjoyed some reputation as a poet at the court of Philip the Fair. The town contains about five thousand inhabitants, it carries on a trade in leather and in different manufactures. Beaugency, perhaps more populous than the last place, is certainly more industrious; the vineyards belonging to the town yield generous wine, it possesses besides, cloth and serge manufactories, leather works and distilleries. An old bridge of thirty-nine arches communicates with both banks of the Loire, but the town must have been more important

BOOK CXLIV.

in the twelfth century than at present, for two councils were held at Beaugency.

Pithiviers.

It might be almost unnecessary to mention Pithiviers, were it not the chief town in the district watered by the Œuf, and the mart of the saffron collected in the neighbouring country, believed by many to be the best in Europe. Malesherbes, a burgh at no great distance from it, was adorned and improved by the lord of Malesherbes, the virtuous minister of Lewis the Sixteenth. Montargis is finely situated near a forest, and at the junction of three canals, those of Briare, Orleans, and Loing; the only buildings worthy of notice are the theatre and a church that may be remarked for the boldness of its architecture. Chatillon-sur-Loing was the birthplace of admiral Coligny. Gien, the capital of the smallest district in the department, has been embellished with a modern bridge on the Loire; the trade of the inhabitants is confined to porcelain. Briare may be about three leagues on the south-east of Gien; it rises in a valley near the junction of a canal.

Montargis.

Quality of the soil in the department.

The country from the last town to Orleans, on the right and on the left of the Loire, is by no means fruitful; but on the north of the sterile Sologne, the hills are covered with vineyards, numerous herds are fattened on the meadows, and the fields at the approach of autumn display their waving harvests, and yield more than sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants.

Department of Nievre.

A tract of country about two leagues in extent, and common to the departments of Loiret and Nievre, leads from the one to the other. The last or the ancient province of Nivernais comprehends on the east the granite heights of Morvan, in some places covered with the lofty forests that supply the Parisians with wood and charcoal, and in others, with the rich pastures on which the oxen are reared that are sent to the capital. The Yonne, the Aron, the Nievre and the Loire compensate in some measure for the few and bad roads that traverse different parts of the country, most of which are inaccessible during part of the year. Many planks, united by flexible branches, and forming long lines, descend every year on the first of these

rivers to Paris. Sandy but fruitful plains extend on the right of the Loire, which in a tract equal to sixteen leagues in length, bounds the department on the west. They produce enough of wheat, oats and wine for the wants of the people; the land abounds in coal and iron; wealth is thus diffused among the inhabitants, commerce and manufacturing industry are facilitated. More than fourteen hundred persons are employed in working metals, and the products of their labour represent a value almost equivalent to L.400,000.

Cosne.

Many of the iron works are situated in the district of Cosne; the town of the same name is the mart of the iron that is forged in the neighbourhood; it stands on the declivity of a hill, the streets are clean and well paved; the inhabitants manufacture cutlery, and carry on a considerable trade in wine. Although no remains of antiquity are left, it is certain that it was one of the seven or eight cities in Gaul, which were called *Condate*, a name probably signifying the junction of two or more streams; we have already had occasion to make the same remark in describing Rennes, it is applicable to other places that have not been mentioned. The Nohain throws itself at Cosne into the Loire; public walks have been cut on the banks of the river, the view from them extends over a fruitful country to the distant hills in the department of Cher. A road from Cosne traverses the heights, which command the course of the Loire, the islands which it waters, and the romantic scenery near its banks; but the landscape becomes still finer above the descent that leads to Pouilly, or at all events, the gifts of nature appear in greater luxuriance; the hills are covered with rich vineyards, that yield the excellent white wines to which the last place has given its name.

Pouilly.

But Pouilly does not contain more than two thousand six hundred inhabitants; it may be about four leagues from Cosne, and at an equal distance from La Charité, in which the two most remarkable objects are the magnificent ruins of a Gothic church, and a well built bridge that joins the road to Bourges.

La Charité.

Clamecy.

Clamecy at the confluence of the Beuvron and the Yonne, is the metropolis of a district, and the place where

BOOK CXLIV.

the authorities regulate the cuttings in the forest of Morvan. It carries on a considerable trade, and possesses several cloth manufactories and porcelain works; thus, although the town is small, the inhabitants are comparatively wealthy. The suburbs of Bethlem has retained its name, because it served as an asylum to the bishop of Bethlem, after the expulsion of the Christians from Palestine. It was the native town of Marchangy, a magistrate and a man of letters. Corbigny on the small river of Anguison, which throws itself into the Yonne, has been long famous for its horses.

District of Chateau-Chinon.

The district of Chateau-Chinon owes its wealth to forests and meadows. The small town situated at no great distance from the sources of the Yonne, stands on a hill commanded by well wooded heights. The inhabitants carry on a trade in wood, charcoal and cattle, a trade which the supply of Paris renders very lucrative. A bad road leads from the town to Nevers, the birthplace of Adam Billaut, a carpenter, whose poetry bears the stamp of genius, he is known in France by the name of the rustic Virgil. The town was called *Noviodunum* in Cæsar's time, who places it in the country of the *Ædui*,* but its name was afterwards changed into *Novirum*, and lastly into *Nevirnum*. It did not become a place of any importance before the reign of Clovis. About the tenth century, William, one of its governors, rendered himself independent, and took the title of count of Nevers. It contained only seven thousand inhabitants about forty years ago, since that period the population has been more than doubled; the increase must be attributed to the effects of commerce and industry, both of which might be still much improved. Nevers has been long celebrated for enamel and different articles of jewellery, they are sold in most parts of France, and exported into different countries. The porcelain works in the same place are supposed to be the best in France; the most ancient of these works, as M. Dupin remarks, was established eight centuries ago;† they furnish

Nevers.

Industry.

* Cæsar de Bello Gallico. Liber VII.

† Forces productives et commerciales de la France, tome i. page 296.

employment to seven hundred workmen, the quantity of tin consumed annually, amounts to 72,000 pounds, and the quantity of lead to 337,500. It is enough to pass through the town to be convinced of the truth of an observation made by a distinguished writer.* "At Nevers," says he, "there are lamps which are never lighted, a bridge on the Loire, which is never repaired, and an enormous calvary raised in the worst taste on the market place. The people in the town have given or allowed the magistrates to take L.1500 for the purpose of erecting this calvary; it might have been better had they laid out the money in purchasing oil, or in lighting their crooked and ill paved streets."

Department of Allier.

The Allier, the *Elaver* of the ancients, throws itself into the Loire at the distance of a league on the west of Nevers; it crosses from south to north, the department to which it gives its name, and which is contiguous on the south to that of Nievre. It makes up almost the whole of Bourbonnais, a country well known on account of its mineral springs, coal-pits and iron mines. Many oxen are fattened in the pastures, and the horses are remarkable for their strength. The oaks are used in building ships; the inhabitants are employed in different branches of industry; they supply Paris with excellent fresh water fish, iron is converted into steel, raw silk into different manufactures, rocks into millstones, and clay into porcelain. But agriculture has long remained stationary, it may be regretted that the system of husbandry has not been improved, that the rich lands in the vallies, the sandy but fruitful soil which covers the granite rocks, yield so scanty harvests.

Moulins.

Moulins was founded in the fourteenth century, it derives its name from the great number of mills *(moulins)* round the place where it was built. Robert, the son of Saint Lewis, founded an hospital in the vicinity, and the princes of the house of Bourbon, long lords of the province in which it was the capital, have at different periods embellished it. The streets are well paved; although the houses are built of brick, and the outer walls fantastically divided into red

* M. Ad. Blanqui. See Relation d'un voyage au midi de la France pendant les mois d'Aout et de Septembre 1828.

BOOK CXLIV.

and black compartments, they are better than many in other provincial towns. Several edifices are built of stone; among others the ancient convent of the Visitation, now changed into a college; the church attached to it is adorned with different ornaments, particularly with the fine mausoleum of the last constable Montmorency, who was beheaded at Toulouse during the administration of Richelieu. The townhouse, another stone building, has been lately erected in the principal square. The town is the seat of a diocess, it possesses a museum or collection of natural history, a library of twenty thousand volumes and a theatre. It was the native town of John Lingendes, a poet of the seventeenth century, his verses are seldom read, but they evince no ordinary talent; it was also the birthplace of Marshals Villars and Berwick. A four-sided tower, now changed into a prison, is all that remains of the ancient castle which the princes of Bourbon inhabited. The bridge on the Allier is little inferior to any in France, it may be about 257 yards in length, and nineteen in breadth, it consists of ten arches, and the opening in each exceeds twenty yards.

Two excellent roads bounded by lofty poplar trees terminate at the bridge; the one on the left leads to Clermont, the other on the right to Limoges; the latter crosses Souvigny, a town of 2700 inhabitants, where the Gothic church served formerly as a place of interment to the princes of the house of Bourbon. The town is situated at no great distance from the capital of the department, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in soda and glass.

Souvigny.

Bourbon-l'Archambault.

Bourbon-l'Archambault in a fruitful valley about three leagues from Souvigny, is visited during the summer and autumn by invalids, particularly by those afflicted with rheumatism and palsy; it is supposed that the thermal springs may mitigate, if they do not remove these diseases. The church is adorned with finely painted windows, but the clumsy and ill built houses appear as old as the town, which was founded, about five hundred years ago. The castle that belonged to the princes of Bourbon is no longer habitable, although three of the towers are in a good state of preservation. The population may amount to three

thousand individuals. The poor but labourious inhabitants in the burgh of Lurcy-Levy find the means of subsistence in making porcelain and earthen ware, some of them are employed in the coal mines in the vicinity.

La Palisse.

La Palisse, a small town in the eastern part of the department is the capital of a subprefecture; it is watered by the Besbre, and commanded by the ruins of an ancient castle. Cusset on the banks of the Allier, has from its walls and ancient fortifications, the appearance of a strong town; it may contain about four thousand inhabitants. Many persons resort every summer to Vichy, a fashionable watering place at no great distance from Cusset, it is situated in a romantic country, where the painter, the botanist and geologist may find subjects of study in their respective pursuits.

Vichy.

Gannat might be passed over in silence, if it were not the residence of a subprefect. Saint Pourçain, a place of greater importance, stands in an agreeable valley, where a famous cattle fair is held during the last days of August. Crowds of well-dressed peasantry repair to the market place, while the idle are attracted by strolling players or mountebanks; tables and tents are set in the plain, where the excellent white wines of Lachaise form the ordinary beverage; in one place the noise of music and dancing is heard, in another the galloping of horses, which those who mean to purchase, try beforehand; the oxen are prized for their strength, not for their fatness, indeed they are never bought by the butcher, the peasantry use them in the plough. The singular costume of the men, the fresh and fair complexion of the women, the cries of different animals, the confused voices of the multitude, bear no resemblance to the village festivals in the neighbourhood of Paris.

Mont-Lucon Neris.

The burgh of Neris-les-Bains is almost contiguous to the gates, walls and flanked bastions of Mont-Lucon; the name of the burgh has not been changed since the time that Julian repaired it after it was sacked by Constantine the Second. It is at present peopled, as in the time of the Romans, by invalids or persons subject to rheumatism and cutaneous diseases. Several ruins, an amphitheatre, an an-

BOOK CXLIV.

cient camp and other remains of antiquity prove that Neris must have been a considerable town, before it was laid waste by Clovis, and at a later period by the Normans. Although there are no public baths, each inn is provided with a large apartment for eight or ten bathers. *Piscinæ*, similar to those that existed in ancient times, are reserved for the use of the hospital, in which more than a hundred and forty patients are gratuitously admitted.

Department of Creuse.

Unproductive in corn, destitute of wine, for which other fermented liquors afford but a poor substitute, the department watered by the Creuse, must be considered a sterile country; it is certain too that a tenth part of the labouring population migrate every year into other parts of France, but they seldom fail to settle afterwards in their native land, where they improve by judicious investments the fruits of their economy and industry. The soil may be arid and mountainous, but the love of country makes it appear less ungrateful than it really is; on that account numbers return to their hills or vallies, and cultivate joyfully the field which their labour has enabled them to purchase. The working of metals is not attended with profit in the department, but from the low rate of wages, it is well adapted for other branches of industry; the art of making carpets has been brought to great perfection, the same may be said of paper and different manufactures.

Aubusson.

The four principal towns are insignificant, and the country is of such a character as may be shortly described. Aubusson watered by the Creuse, and situated in an arid and unfruitful district, rises on a mountain pass formed by naked and granite rocks, it consists merely of a single street, which, it must be admitted, is broad and well built. Lewis the Fourteenth gave it in exchange for Saint-Cyr to the Marshal de Lafeuillade, the last descendant of the ancient viscounts. The carpets made in the royal manufactory are equal to any in France; fifteen other manufactories of the same kind diffuse the means of subsistence among the inhabitants. The places of amusement are three coffee-houses, a theatre and a literary club. Felletin, a small place of three thousand inhabitants, not more than two leagues from Aubusson, rivals it in the same sort of in-

dustry. Bourganeuf may be mentioned on account of two porcelain works and a paper manufactory; it is remarkable too for a tower of very large dimensions, which according to tradition was built by Zizim, the son of Mahomet the Second, who found refuge in France during the reign of Charles the Eighth. Gueret is the capital of the department, the streets are well built and watered by fountains; it is a place of little or no trade; although fuel is very cheap in the neighbourhood, no manufactory or work of any kind has been erected near the town. Boussac contains fewer inhabitants than the capital of any other district in France; it stands on a rock and is almost inaccessible to carriages; surrounded with walls, flanked with bastions, commanded by an old embattled castle from which the view extends along a defile formed by arid and wild mountains, the town is as gloomy a residence as can be well imagined.

Gueret.

There are few departments so well wooded as that watered by the Cher; it has the advantage too of abounding in iron and other minerals. The uniformity of the country is in some places broken by hills; the lands on the east, near the banks of the Loire, which forms the eastern boundary, produce the richest harvests; on the south and on the south-west are situated a great many marshes, and the soil is of an ordinary quality; the marshes on the north and north-west are encompassed with sterile *landes* and heaths; a fruitful country in the centre extends along the banks of the Auron and Cher. On the whole, an ungrateful soil in many places, but in others sufficiently productive, covers two-thirds of the surface; the remaining portion is abundantly fruitful. The inhabitants derive their wealth or means of subsistence from the products of their iron works, from their wool and the culture of the ground, but bigoted to old prejudices and to routine, they do not derive all the profits which might be obtained from a better system of husbandry.

Department of Cher.

Saint-Amand, one of the most commercial towns in the department, rises in an agreeable valley at the confluence of the Marmande and Cher. It is the mart of the grain, wines, chestnuts, naval timber and cattle in the district;

Saint-Amand.

BOOK CXLIV.

most of the inhabitants are consequently engaged in trade. It was built in the year 1410 on the ruins of the burgh of Orval, which the English had destroyed by fire. Dun-le-Roi on the right bank of the Auron was in ancient times one of the most celebrated cities in Aquitaine. The prosperity of Sancerre depends on its trade in wine; it is built on the highest hill in the department, at the distance of a league from the left bank of the Loire. Ivoy-le-Pre is a populous and flourishing burgh; the inhabitants find occupation in making glass, others are employed in iron works, where the different pieces that form the parts of the steam engine, are forged.

The interest excited by an industrious population, and that attached to historical recollections, are not often united in the same place; other manufacturing towns, therefore, such as Aubigny, Henrichemont and Precy, may be passed over in silence, for several places in the neighbouring district of Bourges, possess the double interest which has now been mentioned. Bourges, it may be remarked, is situated in an agreeable position on the declivity of a hill, watered by the Auron, at the very place where the river receives several other streams. It is surrounded with a thick wall flanked at regular distances with eighty lofty towers, all of which are in a state of good preservation. Divided into the old and new town, it might be inferred from their superficial extent, that they could contain a greater population than that which has been assigned to them, but they exhibit nothing which renders it at all doubtful that Bourges is one of the dirtiest towns in France. It is the seat of a royal court, an archiepiscopal see, an university, a scientific and agricultural society; it possesses besides a valuable library, a collection of natural history, a theatre and a large hospital, all of which are situated near low houses and narrow streets. Two edifices are worthy of fixing the attention, the one is the cathedral, the other the town-house; the first may be ranked among the finest Gothic monuments in Europe, it is surmounted by two high towers, the front cannot be considered free from the irregularity, which disfigures almost all the churches of the same period, but it is remarkable for the delicacy and finished workmanship of

Bourges.

the ornaments; the sculptures on the portal represent the last judgment. The town-house was the residence of the celebrated James Cœur, the wealthiest merchant in France during the reign of Charles the Seventh; he managed the king's finances, and was treated as a court favourite, until he granted a loan of 200,000 gold crowns to his sovereign. As a recompense for this service he was accused of several imaginary crimes, deprived of his wealth, and confined in the Franciscan monastery at Beaucaire; many however sympathized with him in his sufferings, indeed he was so much esteemed that the merchants of Beaucaire enabled him to escape from confinement, furnished him with money, counselled him to settle in a foreign land, to forget a country which he still loved, and the base ingratitude of a prince, whom he had the misfortune to oblige. The house was purchased by Colbert, who made it over in 1679 to the mayor and aldermen of Bourges. Every part of the building is richly decorated, the walls are covered with a profusion of ornaments, among which, hearts are not the least conspicuous, probably because the original proprietor's name was Cœur. The chimneys represent towers and the gates of cities guarded by soldiers. A bad portrait of Bourdaloue, painted by himself, has been placed in the interior. The same celebrated jesuit, the fathers Deschamps, Sauciet and Orleans, the treasurer of Charles the Seventh and Lewis the Eleventh, who founded the university of Bourges in 1466, are the most distinguished persons that the town has produced.

Antiquity of Bourges.

According to Livy, Bourges must be one of the oldest cities in Gaul; it was called *Avaricum* before the Roman conquest, it was the principal city of the *Bituriges-Cubi;* the Romans gave it the name of *Bituriges;* Augustus made it the capital of Aquitaine, and the roads to Bordeaux and Autun passed through the town. It was embellished with an amphitheatre, for which a castle was substituted in the eighth century, it is not more than forty years ago since the same castle was destroyed. The *capitol* built by the Romans stood on the site of the town-house. It became at a very early period the chief town in a diocess which was founded by Saint Ursin in the year 252. Chil-

BOOK CXLIV.

prefect's residence. Cloth is the principal article of trade, and there are not fewer than thirty-five manufactories. The Creuse waters Argenton, a small town of four thousand inhabitants, at the distance of six leagues on the west of Chateauroux. It may be inferred from several medals and sculptures that have been discovered at different times, and also from the ancient fortress which was demolished by Lewis the Fourteenth, but of which some ruins still remain, that the town was more important in the time of the Romans. It was then called *Argentomagus*, it lay between the territories of the *Bituriges* and the *Pictavi*.

La-Chatre.

Two districts remain to be described; La-Chatre, the capital of the one, is a small but neat town on a gentle declivity near the left bank of the Indre; it was formerly defended by a strong castle, but the only part of it which now remains, has been for many years used as a prison. Aigurande, an insignificant town near the southern extremity of the department, may be mentioned on account of an ancient octagonal monument, concerning which no tradition has been preserved by the inhabitants, but which was probably set apart for sacrifices or other religious purposes. The Creuse divides Leblanc, the capital of the other district into the high and low town. Saint Benoit du Saul, between the last river and the Anglin, is considered a town by the inhabitants, although it does not contain more than twelve hundred individuals; it is situated in the most picturesque part of the department; indeed nothing can be more romantic than the scenery near the rocks and cataract of Montgerno.

Department of Upper Vienne.

The department of Upper Vienne, a mountainous country, abounds in metals, in rocks useful for building or other purposes, and in kaolin which is used in many porcelain works; but the land is ill adapted for grain or the culture of the vine, the produce does not supply the consumption of the inhabitants; chestnut trees occupy a surface of more than 120,000 acres, and yield annually about 25,000 tons of chestnuts, which make up for the deficiency in grain; fruitful meadows, enable the proprietors to rear many horses, most of which are much valued on account of their strength.

The people are frugal and laborious; masons, carpenters and other artisans leave their country, and obtain employment in most parts of France. Such are some of the characters by which the department of Upper Vienne may be distinguished.

Bellac

The district of Bellac may be first described, because it is contiguous on the north to the department of Indre. The town stands on the declivity of a steep hill above the Vinçon, a small river or rather a stream; it possesses several leather works, some paper mills, linen and woollen manufactories. The vineyards in the neighbourhood yield wines of a good quality. A fine monument of the druidical worship may be observed at no great distance from Bellac, or still nearer the village of Borderie. Dorat is a small town of three thousand inhabitants; the people manufacture cloth and cotton stuffs, they also carry on a trade in weights, measures and barometers. The village of Darnac contains more than two thousand inhabitants, it has risen into importance from its glass and porcelain works. It may not be difficult to infer from the principal places some notion of the commerce and industry in the district.

Limoges.

The Vienne waters a short way above Limoges, an agreeable valley covered with artificial meadows and bounded by heights. The capital of Upper Vienne rises like an amphitheatre on one of the hills near the same valley; the streets are steep and crooked; if they are clean, it may be attributed to the streams that water the town; its situation on a height renders the air keen and pure, the chief cause perhaps of the health of the inhabitants, and the beauty for which the women are famed. Squares and different public walks occupy the highest part of the city; one of the former stands on the site of a Roman amphitheatre. The church of Saint Martial may be admired for its lofty spires, it belonged formerly to an abbey of which the ruins still remain; the cathedral is an imposing Gothic edifice, but the church of Saint Martin is perhaps the finest and certainly the oldest of the three. It might be difficult to discover a fourth public building at all worthy of notice; Limoges possesses, however, other titles to celebrity; it may be sufficient to mention the royal college, the mu-

BOOK CXLIV.

seum of antiquities and natural history, the public library, the gratuitous school of drawing and geometry in their application to the arts, the dispensary, the lunatic asylum, the agricultural society, and what is not perhaps the least useful, the society for the relief of prisoners. At certain seasons, the town is crowded with strangers and country people who attend the races, in which the only horses that are allowed to run, are those bred in the department and nine others in the neighbourhood;* much about the same time, a cattle show takes place, and prizes are awarded to those who exhibit the best oxen. The number of woollen manufactories amounts to thirty-two, and there are not fewer than eleven porcelain works. The distinguished men that the town has produced, are the carmelite Honoré de Sainte Marie, the author of three quarto volumes on different military orders, Dorat the poet, the chancellor D'Aguesseau, and marshal Jourdan.

Antiquity of Limoges.

Ratiatum, a town which Ptolemy mentions, appears to have been built on the site of Limoges; the Romans gave it the name of *Limovices*, by which they also designated the ancestors of the present Limousins. It must have been a flourishing city in Cæsar's time, for he says that the territory furnished ten thousand men to the confederation of the Gauls.† It was laid waste in the fifth century by the Visigoths; the English obtained possession of it in 1360 by virtue of the treaty of Bretigny, but it was restored nine years afterwards to the kings of France. Saint-Leonard, the second town in point of importance in the district, may be about seven leagues above Limoges, in the direction of the Vienne; it is encompassed with agreeable walks, it contains several manufactories, and at least six thousand inhabitants.

Roche-chouard.

Rochechouard lies towards the west of Limoges, near the frontier of the department; it is built on the declivity of a hill and commanded by an old castle, which the English besieged in vain during the reign of Charles the Fifth. The

* The departments of Allier, Cher, Creuse, Correze, Indre, Indre and Loire, Nievre, Saone and Loire, and Vienne.

† Cæsar de Bello Gallica, liber VII et VIII.

present name of the town is derived from *Rupes Cavardi*, the ancient name of the castle. Twelve burghs are situated in the district of which Rochechouard is the capital; the country abounds in iron ore; several iron works and manufactories account for the industry and comparative wealth of the inhabitants. Saint-Julian, a small city, but more populous than the last, is encompassed with ramparts; it rises like an amphitheatre on a hill at the confluence of the Vienne and the Glanne; it has twelve cloth and two flannel manufactories, five paper mills and two porcelain works. The district of Saint-Yriex, not less industrious than that of Saint-Julian, abounds in kaolin, of which the discovery made in 1770 by Villars, a druggist at Bordeaux, has greatly increased the number of porcelain works in France; almost all of them are supplied with the substance from the district of Saint-Yriex. The town, although wealthy, is ill built, it owes its origin to a monastery founded in the sixth century in honour of the Saint whose name it bears.

Department of Correze.

The Correze takes its source, and falls into the Vezere in a mountainous department, in one ill provided with good roads or navigable rivers. The inhabitants fatten several thousand oxen in winter, and export them to Paris in the spring of the year; they supply besides the maritime towns of Bayonne and Bordeaux with salt meat, and furnish walnut oil to different departments. These products indicate at least the abundance of walnut trees, and the richness of the pastures; the country may be divided into two regions, the one on the south-east, the other on the north-west of the road to Limoges. If a traveller ascend the Correze, he may observe on the right of the same road, mountainous and sterile districts which occupy nearly two-thirds of the department, and which the peasantry call the *Montagne;* the second or the *low country*, as it has been termed, consists of cultivated lands and fruitful vineyards, but it does not produce enough of grain to supply the consumption. In the former, the scenery is wild and romantic, and the inhabitants are thinly scattered; in the latter the population is more concentrated, almost all the ground is cultivated, and mills are erected on the different streams.

BOOK CXLIV.

Uzerche.

The road from Limoges traverses the small but neat town of Uzerche, which does not contain more than two thousand inhabitants, it stands on the declivity of a hill above the Vezere; all the houses are covered with slates, the most of them are flanked with turrets which give the town a singular appearance, and attest its antiquity. Beyond Uzerche, the same road passes through a picturesque country, intersected with the ravines and precipices that are formed by the last heights in the mountainous region. The cathedral of Tulle was built in the ninth century, it is chiefly remarkable for the height of a tower, which may be seen from the road at the distance of three miles. The town owes its origin to a monastery, that dates from the seventh century, and to the destruction of another and more ancient city, of which all that now remains, are the ruins of an amphitheatre and other buildings about half a mile from the walls. The present city is dirty and ill built, the streets are crooked and narrow, and in many places very steep. There are several paper-mills, woollen manufactories, distilleries and leather works; the inhabitants carry on a trade in walnut oil. Tulle has produced few distinguished men, and certainly none during the last or present century, but it may be perhaps worth while to mention Stephen Baluze, who was sent into exile for having written a genealogical history of the house of Auvergne, in which he maintained the claims of cardinal Bouillon, who, it was asserted, could not be subject to the king, because his father was prince of Sedan before Tulle was united to France.

Tulle.

Brives-la-Galliarde.

The Correze waters the neat town of Brives-la-Galliarde, the birthplace of cardinal Dubois, general Treilhard and the unfortunate marshal Brune. Lubersac contains about three thousand inhabitants; general Souham may be mentioned among its distinguished townsmen. Turenne, at the distance of three leagues from the chief town in the department, has given its name to one of the greatest generals that France has produced. The population does not exceed sixteen hundred individuals; the ruins of a fortress, probably one of the most ancient in France, are situated on a steep rock that commands the town; the largest tower in the same

fortress may be about a hundred feet in height, the country people call it the *Tower of Cæsar*.

Ussel.

Few places of any consequence can be mentioned in the mountainous region; Ussel, the capital of a district, is surrounded by arid summits, and watered by the Sarsonne, on which a bold and elegant bridge has been erected since the revolution. Bort may be about five leagues on the south-east of the last town, it stands in a fine position on the right bank of the Dordogne, it boasts of being the birthplace of Marmontel. The Rue, a small river, forms a fine cascade about a mile and a half below Bort, the country people call it the fall of the *Saule*.

Department of Cantal.

The ramifications connected with Cantal extend over the department, which bears the name of the mountain—a noble monument of the volcanic convulsions, to which the centre and the south of France were exposed at a period, when the soil was covered with the sea. The sides of these heights formed by porphyry, basalt, lava, scoria and pumice are frequently beaten by violent winds, and the snow on their summits remains nearly eight months in the year. Limpid springs issuing from the depths of the earth, are enlarged or changed into rivulets; the numerous cascades, which they form in different directions, add to the beauty of varied landscapes. The same streams, precipitated into low valleys, fertilize the pastures which they water, and give rise to several rivers. The northern declivities furnish the principal streams of the Rue, a feeder of the Dordogne which receives also the Maronne and the Cere that descend from the western valleys. The eastern plains may be considered the sources of the Truyere, which throws itself into the Lot, of the Alagnon which advances in an opposite direction, and falls into the Arcueil above its junction with the Allier. The lands on the south are watered by different streams that enlarge the Truyere. The thermal and medicinal springs which rise from the sides of the same mountains, are supposed to be salutary in different diseases. The valleys watered by the streams and rivers which have been now enumerated, are in general fruitful, but the most of the grain that the inhabitants consume, is cultivated in

BOOK CXLIV.

the plain of Planeze, through which the Alagnon and the Arcueil flow.

Industry.

The upper valleys, different heights and the summits of the Plomb, that occupy the centre of the group, and are more lofty than the rest, abound in rich pastures and meadows that are covered with numerous herds, even with those from the neighbouring departments. The oxen fattened on these pastures are sold in every part of France, the sheep are exported to the southern parts of the kingdom; kid and goat skins, articles of commerce in the country, are changed into parchment at Milhau. The horses, although of a small size, are strong and well adapted for light cavalry. The people in the *Burons* or cottages that are scattered in different parts of the pastures, convert their milk into butter and cheese of three different qualities. The husbandman cultivates rye and buck-wheat, which constitute the principal food of the peasantry, lint which rivals in fineness that of Flanders, hemp which is woven into sail-cloth for the navy, or sold to the Spaniards, potatoes, fruits of different sorts, particularly chestnuts which make up no small part of the consumption, and lastly some vineyards, that yield only wines of inferior quality. Copper kettles and different utensils of the same metal, lace and paper are almost the only articles that are made in the department; the coal pits are not of much importance, no other mines are worked; thus for want of employment, many individuals leave their country, the most of them follow the trade of copper-smiths or brasiers in different parts of France, in Spain, and even in Holland.

Maurs.

The fifteen hundred inhabitants of Maurs in the southern part of the department, rear a great many pigs, and carry on a considerable trade in bacon. From Maurs, situated at the base of the mountains, the traveller can ascend into the high country, where he may pass through towns little worthy of being examined in detail, and where the majestic spectacle afforded by the remains of ancient volcanic eruptions is likely to reward him for his labour.

Aurillac.

At the extremity of the picturesque valley watered by the Jordanne, he may traverse the broad but irregular streets

of Aurillac. The theatre has been considered too large and too much ornamented for the capital of so poor a department; the town rests on lava, which large lakes have covered with thick strata of calcareous sediments. The hippodrome beyond the walls has been set apart for the horse races, which take place every year, not before the first and not after the fifteenth of May. It appears very improbable that Aurillac was founded before the eighth century. Pope Gerbert who took the title of Silvester the Second, marshal Noailles, Piganiol de la Force, and the infamous Carrier were born within the walls. Basaltic lava arranged like colonnades are situated in the immediate neighbourhood of the town; two mineral springs rise in the suburb, the use of them is recommended in different diseases.

It is almost impossible for a stranger to travel the winding and narrow roads in the department of Cantal without a guide. Vic-en-Carladez, a small town of two thousand five hundred inhabitants, called also *Vic-sur-Cere*, because the Cere passes through it, has been of late years frequented on account of its mineral water. It may be about nine miles from Aurillac; the women in the intermediate villages are celebrated not only for their beauty and fresh complexions, but also for their graceful demeanour.

Vic-en-Carladez.

The elevation of the Plomb du Cantal may be about 6,036 feet; any one who ascends it, may discover the ruins of a colossal volcano, scattered over a granite mass. Saint-Flour is situated above the valley watered by the Dauzan, on the summit of a basaltic hill nearly three hundred feet in height. The number of inhabitants amounts to seven thousand, it is the chief town in a district consisting of eighty-two burghs and villages. All the houses and streets are built of lava; but, although the seat of a diocess, it possesses no edifice of any consequence. It has produced two celebrated men, the dramatic poet Du Belloy and the brave Desaix who fell at Marengo. The inhabitants manufacture copper utensils and coarse cloth, they export glue, and prepare archil (*alga tinctoria*) for dying.

Saint Flour.

Chaudes-Aigues stands in a mountain pass, watered by a feeder of the Truyere; it was known to the Romans, who

Chaudes-Aigues.

BOOK CXLIV.

gave it the name of *Calentes-Aquæ*. It does not contain more than two thousand individuals, but the thermal springs are held in great repute, they attract during the summer season, a number of invalids at least equal if not greater than the number of inhabitants. These springs issue from volcanic rocks, and their temperature varies from twenty to sixty degrees of Reaumur. Their sanative qualities are not their only virtues, they are used in cooking, in washing, in every domestic purpose in which warm water is required, lastly, they are introduced into each house by subterranean pipes, and they serve to warm the rooms during winter.

Murat.

The Alagnon waters a pleasant valley at the base of the Plomb du Cantal, near the Puy-du-Peroux. Murat, the chief town in a subprefecture, stands on the right bank of the same river; the men are employed in working copper, and the women in making lace; their occupations and manner of life may recall that sort of industry which was first introduced by Colbert into upper Auvergne. The Puy-Mary, a volcanic peak, rises on the opposite side of the Col-de-Cabre in the district of Mauriac; the small town of Salers in the same district is built on a volcanic jet, it gives its name to the mountains in the neighbourhood, where the finest cattle in Auvergne are reared. The mountaineers are said to be quarrelsome and prone to revolt, defects which may be attributed to an insulated situation and the want of education. Mauriac, a small town, is situated on the side of a basaltic hill, which commands an extensive and magnificent view. In the vicinity are the romantic valley of Fontanges, the water-falls of Salins, ravines and steep rocks stretching almost to the banks of the Rue, and exhibiting all the variety of forms that are to be found in volcanic countries.

Department of the Puy-de-Dome.

Valleys watered by small streams separate the Cantal group from that of Mont-Dor; the immense labyrinth, which they form, leads from the department of Cantal to that of Puy-de-Dome.

Having arrived above the region of the fir, pastures cover the sides of all the mountains which are grouped round the Puy-de-Saucy; their bases form a ridge with a southern inclination. Herds of cattle are seen at distant inter-

vals, and a few scattered cottages serve to vary a dreary country, in which the shepherd cannot find a single tree to shelter himself against the rays of the sun. The peasantry repair to a Gothic chapel, built in the sixteenth century; great numbers perform a pilgrimage to it every year; on Sundays and other days, consecrated to divine service, many mountaineers meet at the same place. A cottage, which has been dignified with the name of an inn, may be seen near the chapel; it is frequented by pedestrians in their excursions on Mont-Dor, by the people of Auvergne, and by all those who require something stronger than the limpid water which flows from a neighbouring spring. It is necessary for a stranger to hire a guide, if he wishes to visit the Trou de Saucy, a natural excavation in the form of a barrel, about a hundred feet in diameter, and terminating in a pool not less than eighty feet in depth.

Appearance of Mont-Dor.

Trou de Saucy.

The extent of the pool cannot be ascertained, but to judge from the prolonged noise occasioned by the discharge of a gun, it must be considerable. It would be inaccurate to suppose that it occupies the place of a crater, but it may be remarked that the water is limpid to the depth of at least six feet, the temperature too is much lower than any of the springs in the country; but the phenomenon may be easily explained, the porous lava which lines the cavity, promotes evaporation. The country people affirm that the pool communicates with the waters in lake Pavin, a lake which in appearance at least, resembles a crater. The enclosure forms a perfect circle, and the depth is not much less than a hundred and twenty feet. The lower banks of the lake are well wooded, and the luxuriance of the plants which cover them may be attributed to the moisture exhaled from the waters; the higher banks are formed by the lava, which has flowed down the sides of the Puy-de-Monchal, a neighbouring volcano. The black waters of the lake fed by no visible spring, and continually discharged by an adjoining outlet, form the Couse, a small river which fertilizes the neighbouring meadows. A limpid stream feeds the lake of Mount-Sineyre, at no great distance from the last, but there does not appear to be any outlet to the waters which it continually receives.

BOOK CXLIV.

Puy-de-Saucy.

Few travellers visit the volcanic heights that encompass Mont-Dor without ascending the Puy de Saucy, of which the pyramidal summit is apparent from every part of the surrounding country. The rocks that compose it, are impressed with all the characters of an igneous origin; the groups round Mont-Dor and Cantal may be said to attest those great convulsions, of which burning volcanos can furnish but an imperfect idea. No craters can be seen; the fused substances were raised from an immense depth, they pierced through the granite, and exhibited probably after their consolidation an enormous and rugged mass, which the action of the atmosphere and of ages has scattered in every direction. Although the subterranean fires are extinguished, the monuments which they have left, are awful from their height, and imposing from their extent; even at present the asperities on their surface threaten to overwhelm the plains below them. The eastern sides of the Puy de Saucy are less precipitous or acclivous, and the chairmen in the valley to which visitors resort on account of the thermal baths, have carried ladies to the summit. The verdant sides are covered with thick and tufted grass; a sheet of water formed by all the springs which descend from the higher declivities, occupies a small part of the lofty plain, where the traveller rests on the road to the peak. It often happens that a person commences his journey at day break, when no clouds appear on the mountain, when he expects to be rewarded for his labour by a magnificent and extensive view, but having reached the summit of the volcanic pyramid, where a cross built of the same substance has been erected, a dense fog prevents him from discovering the narrow path by which he ascended. The inscriptions on the four sides of the cross are then only visible, from them he may learn that he has ascended 2720 feet, that the rock on which he stands, is 109 feet higher than the Puy-de-Cantal, 1368 higher than the Puy-de-Dome, and 6136 above the level of the sea; lastly, that he has reached the highest point in central France. If the sun's rays dissipate the clouds collected around him; he may see on one side the romantic valley of Mont-Dor, and beyond it an almost boundless horizon, on the left, the valley of Enfer, frightful from its depth and

Valley of Enfer.

the rugged rocks that bound it. Having left the Pic de la Croix, the traveller may wander through meadows, where the golden ranunculus and potentilla contrast with the verdure of the other plants. Grassy tufts issue from the crevices on the pass of Enfer, from the steep rocks near the vale of La Cour, and from the ravines above frightful precipices, where the snow remains part of the month of August. The view from the slippery declivities on the western side, extends over deep and sequestered valleys, while the cattle on the heights seem almost suspended from pastures, on which man cannot walk without fear. The shepherds drive a stake into the ground above an abyss, attach themselves to it by means of a cord, and mow grass which the wind too often scatters.

Valley of Mont-Dor.

The highest part in the valley of Mont-Dor is watered by the Dor, a small river formed by the streams that descend the Puy-de-Saucy, and fall like cataracts in a vertical fissure through rugged rocks. Fir trees cover the base of the mountain; a rapid stream, which the inhabitants call the Cascade of the Serpent, winds near the shade of their dismal foliage on the right of the Dor; it is almost concealed in many places by tufts of the broad-leaved *cacalia* and the blue flowering *sonchus*. Below it and on the same side of the valley, the waters of the Dogne fall from a height not less than a hundred and sixty feet; they mingle near the fall with the waters of the Dor, and form the Dordogne. The Capuchin, a rock composed of porphyritic lava, so called, because when seen from a distance, it has some resemblance to a monk in the dress of that order, rises on the opposite bank of the river. The village of Bains fronts the same rock; trees have lately been planted on a walk that leads to it, and extends along the banks of the Dordogne, across which an iron bridge has been erected. New baths are raised on the site of those that were built by the Romans; the inhabitants have gradually enlarged and embellished their village, which has now become a place of resort for strangers from the month of June to the middle of September. The baths form a simple and at the same time a solid edifice; the materials with which they are built, were taken from a dark

Cascade of the Serpent.

Great Cascade.

Capuchin.

Bains.

BOOK CXLIV.

volcanic rock, they are covered with large and thin stones of the same substance; on the whole, they are not unlike the buildings of the Romans. The pilasters and arcades in front correspond well with the old columns and other remains of an ancient monument, which according to antiquaries, formed part of a temple that some wealthy Roman erected near the square before the new edifice, to commemorate a cure which, it was supposed, the waters had effected. The varied and picturesque sites in the valley and neighbourhood of Mont-Dor are visited by the strangers who frequent the baths; the exercise which they take contributes perhaps as much as the thermal springs to the improvement of their health. Few persons leave the country before they have seen lake Chambon from which the Couse takes its source. The romantic scenery near the lake, accords well with the views which Sidonius Apollinaris describes round his house, indeed there is every reason to believe that its banks were inhabited by the celebrated prelate of the Gauls, who flourished about the middle of the fifth century.*

Lake Chambon.

We may pass from the valley of Mont-Dor to different places not unworthy of notice in the district of Issoire. The remains of several Roman baths may be seen at Saint-Nectaire, a place famous for its cheese; ruins prove the antiquity of the small burgh. One of the five or six rivers, called Couse in the department, traverses Issoire, a town that was founded before the conquest of the Gauls, and to which the Romans gave the name of *Issiodurum*. The church appears to be of an architecture anterior to the Gothic; mosaic ornaments are observed on the outside, and the twelve signs of the Zodiac are carved on the walls; Virgo and Libra adorn the principal front. The Latin names of these signs, and the Roman characters are proofs that the church was built at a very remote period; the choir rests on a subterranean chapel. Those who pass through the town, may observe several broad and well built streets, fountains, squares, a fine public walk and a covered market place, built of gra-

Issoire.

* See the note at the end of a work entitled, Recherches sur les proprietés physiques, chimiques et medicinales des eaux du Mont-Dor by Doctor Bertrand.

nite. Issoire was the birthplace of Antony Duprat, chancellor of France, who after the death of his wife, entered into holy orders, and became a cardinal; he abolished the pragmatic sanction, rendered offices and benefices venal, increased the imposts, and lived long enough to be execrated by his countrymen. Iron and coal mines are worked in the neighbourhood of Auzat on the right bank of the Allier. More than a million of bottles are made every year at the glass works of La Combelle in the same district. Sauxillanges contains about two thousand inhabitants, they carry on a trade in earthen ware, saws, scythes and woollen stuffs of their own manufacture.

The Allier, a broad but shallow river, winds through Limagne; on the left are the granite rocks which rise in the form of peaks above the village of Saint-Yvoine, and threaten to overwhelm both the steersman who directs his bark, and the traveller who pursues his journey along the road on the banks of the river. The burgh of Vic-le-Comte is built on the right bank beyond the village; it may be mentioned as the birthplace of the immortal Lesage. Billom, a town of five thousand inhabitants, and supposed to be the most ancient in Auvergne, is about two leagues distant from the Allier. It may be seen from the summit of the Puy-de-Corrent, a mountain of which the absolute height may be more than nineteen hundred feet; it is composed of lime and sandstone, substances originally deposited below the fresh waters which covered the whole of Limagne, it is crowned with lava and basalt. Billom a town of five thousand inhabitants, supposed to be the most ancient in Auvergne, was formerly celebrated, and it has again become so of late years, on account of a college under the direction of the jesuits. At the time of their expulsion, a picture was observed in the college church, of which many engravings were afterwards sold in France; it represented religion under the emblem of a ship guided by the jesuits. The principal articles made in the town are silks and porcelain of admirable fineness.

Billom.

The road to Clermont passes along the base of Gergovia, a calcareous and volcanic mountain; the name serves still to indicate the site of the principal city in the country of the *Arverni*, a city that Cæsar besieged without success. It was

Mountain of Gergovia

BOOK CXLIV.

built in a plain on the mountain, of which the absolute height is not less than two thousand three hundred feet. The site is accurately described in the classical Commentaries; the country people have often found broken *amphoræ*, Roman medals and Gallic hatchets. The traveller may form from the same place some notion of the wealth and industry in Limagne; he may see villages crowded on the sides of the mountain, hills covered with vineyards, valleys shaded by fruit trees, and in the distance, the fertile plain that extends from the banks of the Allier to the volcanic summits that command Clermont, Volvic and Riom. The heights above the plain are crowned in different directions with old and dark castles, watered by numerous streams or canals cut by the husbandmen, and passing in the midst of fruitful meadows, corn fields, orchards and plantations of poplar trees.

Pont-du-Chateau.

Pont-du-Chateau may contain about three thousand inhabitants; it is situated near the extremity of the plain on the banks of the Allier, which flows beneath a modern bridge, and falls the height of several feet from an artificial embankment.

Clermont.

Clermont is built on a height which cannot be said to be very lofty, if compared with the mountains that surround it. Ramparts adorned with fine trees form an enclosure round narrow and dismal streets. It may be urged however that the gloomy appearance of the town is owing, in part at least, to the lava with which the houses are built; the inhabitants cover them with plaster of Paris, but the lava always resumes its sombre colour. The cathedral was commenced in the twelfth century, but it remains still in an unfinished state; the architecture is bold and simple, the greatest ornaments in the interior are perhaps the finely painted windows; the white marble figures on the outside contrast well with the dark lava. The church of Notre-dame-du-Port is without doubt a very ancient building; lighted by arcades and not by ogives, loaded with inscriptions in Roman characters, it was in all probability founded shortly after the introduction of Christianity in Gaul.

Squares.

The principal squares or *places* as they are called, are very large, some of them may be mentioned on account of different buildings or public institutions. The Jaude forms

a rectangle, not a square, a covered market is erected in the middle of it. A lofty Gothic fountain ornamented with arabesques rises in the Champeix, a large but irregular quadrangle. The Poterne leads to an agreeable walk, from which the plains of Limagne, and the summit of Puy-de-Dome may be distinctly seen. A fountain in the form of an obelisk has been erected at the extremity of the Taureau to the memory of Desaix. The ancient college, a very elegant building, is situated at no great distance from the last monument; large halls are set apart for public schools of drawing, mineralogy and natural history; it contains besides a valuable collection of casts from the finest ancient statues, of different articles in the three natural kingdoms, among others, the best mineralogical specimens in the department. Other apartments are reserved for the academical society and a library of twenty thousand volumes. A white marble statue of Pascal, certainly the most illustrious man that Clermont has produced, has been placed in the library. A large and valuable botanical garden communicates with the college.

Scientific institutions

Fountain of Sainte-Alyre.

The fountain of Sainte-Alyre flows through one of the suburbs of Clermont; the inhabitants consider it the greatest wonder in the place, and guides are ever ready to show it to strangers. It is a ferruginous spring, abundantly impregnated with carbonate of lime; it supplies baths, the use of which medical men consider beneficial in some complaints. The transparency of the water does not indicate the ingredients that compose it, for in that respect it may vie with the purest crystal. Diverted into artificial grottos, or made to fall in minute particles, it covers flowers, fruits, branches of trees, and stuffed animals of the largest or smallest size with so fine a calcareous sediment as to give them the appearance of petrifactions without changing their forms. These articles are collected and sold to strangers; many of whom, apt to confound a mechanical operation with the phenomena of petrifaction, believe that they can detect the mysteries of nature, while the calcareous molecules are disengaged from the waters. The spring of Sainte-Alyre has made for itself a calcareous embankment that terminates in an irregular arch, through which

BOOK CXLIV.

it flows, and falls into a neighbouring stream. The natural bridge and embankments are raised on the plants once watered by the spring. The calcareous sediment thus deposited extends over a space about two hundred and thirty feet in length; a branch of the same spring forms at present other works of the same kind, and as the length gained every year does not exceed four inches, it follows that a period of seven hundred years elapsed before the bridge and embankments which are now seen, were completed.

Industry of Clermont.

Clermont is not a manufacturing town, it possesses but few manufactories or works of any kind. It may be considered however an important depot to the neighbouring departments, and even to Bordeaux, Lyons and Paris. The people in Auvergne believe it to be a town of great antiquity; the ancient name of *Nemetum* renders their opinion not improbable, but if it existed at the time that Cæsar laid siege to *Gergovia*, it must have been a place of little importance, for it is not mentioned by the Roman general. It cannot be denied that it was enlarged and embellished by Augustus; indeed to perpetuate the recollection of the emperor's munificence, it was called *Augusto-Nemetum*. It retained its senate and magistrates until the seventh century; the present name of the town appears to have been derived from that of an ancient castle on a neighbouring height; it is certain at least that both the one and the other were called *Clarus Mons*.

Neighbourhood.

The Puy-de-Crouelle, Mont Rognon and other mountains, the products of volcanic fires, seem like so many low hills from the lofty ramparts of Clermont; but they appear very different from the plain below the ramparts; the first rises to the height of more than three hundred feet above the highest part of the town; the inclination of the alternate calcareous and basaltic strata towards its centre, may be considered the traces of the subterranean shocks by which it was raised. The basaltic cone on the second has been ascertained to be at least eight hundred feet above its base, and, like many other heights in the same country, it is crowned with the ruins of an ancient building. Mont-Ferrand has been called a suburbs of Clermont, although it is about a

Mont Ferrand.

mile and a half distant from the walls; it consists of dark Gothic houses, that are crowded on an inclined plain. A country different from that which has been now described, extends in an opposite direction.

Valley of Royat.

The oldest building in the burgh of Chamaillere is a church that was built in the fourth century; there are besides six paper mills that are put in motion by the Fontanat, which waters a romantic valley. Old walnut trees display their thick foliage, while the broad-leaved ivy clings round their trunks; vines appear suspended above a road that follows the windings of a limpid stream; granite mountains support two immense masses of lava and scoria, and excavations similar to those at Puzzuoli exhale carbonic acid. A mineral, acidulated, ferruginous and thermal spring was perhaps not unknown to Cæsar, at all events it bears his name; another stream rises from volcanic rocks, passes through the grotto of Royat by seven outlets, and forms as many cascades; in short the whole valley may remind an Italian of the finest sites in his country. The Puy Chateix rises above the village and grotto of Royat; it was so called from a castle which was built by the dauphins of Auvergne. The mineralogist may find near its summit, in the veins that run through the granite, beautiful specimens of sulphated barytes; the botanist may discover several rare plants and lichens of the finest colours. Those who have neglected the previous study requisite for the enjoyment of scientific researches, may except the invitation of the villagers, who are ready to show strangers the *Granaries of Cæsar*. It is thus that they call a ruin on the side of the mountain, where travellers have seen rye, wheat and other grain slightly carbonized, in all probability the effect of a fire by which the granaries of the ancient castle were destroyed.

Puy-de-Dome.

An author of some celebrity affirms that the Puy-de-Dome is not a mountain,—what else can it be? It commands all the volcanic summits in the neighbourhood of Clermont, the absolute elevation exceeds 4500 feet, and the height above the base, 2200.* It is by no means un-

* M. Blanqui, in his Relation d'un voyage au midi de la France, makes the absolute elevation equal to 5000 feet.

BOOK CXLIV.

likely that the writers who describe the crater of the Puy-de-Dome, have never ascended it.* The mountain may be regarded as an ancient monument of subterranean convulsions, impelled from the depths of the earth, and covering the orifice of the crater through which it was raised. The ancients called it *Podium Dumense*, it is composed of a spungy rock containing in many places ferruginous crystals or lamina of dazzling lustre. The same rock is of igneous origin, and known by the name of *domites*, the type of other analogous substances. Long and tufted grass extends from the base to the summit, where a small excavation, the only remains of an ancient hermitage and chapel, has been dignified with the name of a crater, although it is deemed inaccurate to call the Puy-de-Dome a mountain. The view loses in perspective what it gains in extent; no near or well-defined objects form a shade to a succession of airy distances, the sixty volcanos that form a long line from the base, might almost be compared to so many mole-hills in a field. The Puy-de-Nadailhat, which rises to the height of two thousand feet above the plain, has vomited the Serre, an immense mass of lava, occupying on a considerable breadth, an extent of nearly three leagues. The admirably preserved crater of the Puy-de-Pariou may be about 960 feet in diameter and 280 in depth; the mountain is not less than five hundred feet higher than the last; still both of them appear very insignificant from the Puy-de-Dome.

Puy-de-Nadailhat.

Puy-de-Pariou.

The Great Sarcouy.

Other mountains are situated on the north of these districts; the white summits of the Great Sarcouy and the Puy-Chopine indicate a different origin from that of the neighbouring heights. In the first, the same porous substance may be discovered, as the one which composes the Puy-de-Dome; and the name of the mountain still serves to indicate the use to which the rock was applied by the ancients. Several unfinished *sarcophagi* have been found in the caverns dug by the Romans; it is certain they were considered valuable by the same people from the property they possess of drying speedily dead bodies by absorbing

* Besides the work last mentioned, see the Ermite en Provence, tome viii. p. 328.

the humid particles. The second or the Puy-Chopine attests the convulsions by which the neighbouring conical masses were raised, masses composed of different sorts of domites, granite and basaltic rocks. The district of Riom is coterminous to these mountains; Pont-Gibaud, one of the places in the district has been called a town, although the population does not exceed eight hundred individuals; it possesses a fine fountain, mineral springs, several corn mills and hydraulic saws; the inhabitants have lately begun to work argentiferous lead mines in the neighbourhood.

Pont-Gibaud.

Low woods cover the base of the Puy-de-Nugere, and in many places thorns and nut trees conceal the vegetable mould formed by the decomposition of scoria; the same Puy has vomited from its inclined crater two currents of lava, which extend in different directions to the distance of 3600 yards, and meet below Volvic. The inhabitants of the burgh had long used volcanic fragments for building and other purposes; but the same sort of industry was of late years much extended by the ingenious M. de Chabrol. A school of drawing and sculpture was founded, casts of ancient figures were collected, the method of mutual instruction was introduced, and village lads became painters and sculptors. Different machines moved by water were afterwards erected, and three times the number of hands were employed in extracting the lava. A ready market was found for the different products in Paris, and the lava, which had been before only used in building houses or in paving streets, was changed by means of the lathe into columns, and by the chisel into elegant chapters; the master-works of antiquity were thus multiplied, the same substance was converted into *cippi* and funereal monuments, its sombre colour, solidity and texture not affected by the atmosphere, rendering it more valuable for the last purpose than marble or even granite. It would not be easy to calculate the advantages that might accrue to the department, if the trade in these articles of luxury and utility were sufficiently encouraged, if canals made in Auvergne to communicate with the rivers that descend towards the capital, gave greater facility to the conveyance of goods, which in the present state of communications are quadrupled in price by the mere expense of transport.

Volvic.

BOOK CXLIV.

Riom.

The importance of Riom may be attributed to courts of law, and to the litigious propensities of the people in Auvergne; at all events, industry is at a low ebb, and the trade of the place is almost confined to articles of primary necessity. The town is well enough built, several fountains water it, and it stands on a hill above the Ambene; the suburbs are separated from the city by ramparts and fortifications. It might be attended with advantage to the department if the courts of justice were transferred to Clermont. The tribunal, the *holy chapel* and the prison, a large and well-aired edifice are the finest buildings. Riom has produced several distinguished men, but none more so than Gregory of Tours.

Aigues-Perse.

Although there is only one long and broad street in Aigues-Perse, the population amounts to five thousand inhabitants; the neighbouring country abounds in picturesque scenery, and that circumstance together with its mineral springs may account for its being a place of resort in the fine season. Two celebrated men, the chancellor De L'Hopital and the poet Delille were born in the town.

The impulse that a canal and good roads might give to the commerce and consequently to the wealth of the department, may be estimated, in some degree at least, by the industry observable along the Dore, the Allier and on the road to Lyons, lately made permeable in the district of Thiers.

Thiers.

The city, enclosed on all sides by a wild and romantic country, consists of singularly painted but not inelegant houses. The inhabitants have carried on a trade in hardware and coarse cutlery during three hundred years, and the same sort of industry furnishes employment at present to twenty thousand persons in the town and neighbouring hamlets. The paper made in the same place dates from a period almost as remote, but in consequence of the improvements that have been successively introduced, the quantity now manufactured is much greater, and the quality much finer. Ten or twelve other works are in an equally prosperous state, and it may be added that the Durole, the great mover of them all, is a small stream that rushes through a narrow and abrupt ravine. The village of Saint-Remy participates with Thiers in the same sort of industry; it carries on a trade in cutlery and hardware goods, it contains nearly four thou-

sand inhabitants. The fir trees cut in the neighbouring heights, are divided into planks in the burgh of Puy-Guillaume on the banks of the Dore, by means of hydraulic saws. Maringues rises on the Morge, not far from the Allier; many of the inhabitants are employed in dressing chamois and kid skins. Courpierre, the chief town in an agricultural district, contains about three thousand individuals; one or two mills have been built in it for the purpose of grinding bones, which are used as a manure.

Ambert.

The district of Ambert, although not so favourably situated as the last, is perhaps more important on account of its industry. The best cheeses in Auvergne are exported from the town; the stream which crosses it, and which throws itself into the Dore, puts in motion more than sixty paper mills and different works. Arlant is situated above Ambert in a pleasant valley on the banks of the Dolore; the principal manufactures are lace and ribbons; Marsac and Viverols carry on a trade in articles of the same sort. Mines of argentiferous lead are worked with profit in the neighbourhood of Saint-Amans-Roche-Savine: lastly, the burghs of Oliergues and Cunlhat export the same products as Ambert.

Wealth of the department.

All those who have visited the department, agree that its commerce and resources might be greatly increased; to judge from the antimony, lead and coal mines, considerable wealth might be extracted from the depths of the earth. The fruitful soil of Limagne might be covered with the richest harvests, if the prejudices of the peasantry were not opposed to every improvement. The rich meadows on Mont-Dor, the fine swards that cover all the sides of the volcanic Puys, are admirably adapted for rearing cattle; but it is difficult to find any of a good kind, it might be necessary to import oxen from Switzerland, and sheep from Spain. The wretched condition of the people in the rural districts may be readily inferred from the preceding remarks. A peasant, encumbered with unwieldy wooden shoes, may be seen holding a long rod in his right hand, and guiding oxen attached to a wooden cart, of which the wheels without iron make the air resound with the shrill and disagreeable noise produced by the friction on the axle-tree. The ancient *araire*, a very clumsy plough, is still used in the fields; the ploughman

Poverty of the inhabitants.

stops his oxen by repeating the Latin words, *sta bos*, words introduced by Roman masters, from whom they have been handed down to men ignorant of their meaning. The cottages of the peasantry proclaim their poverty; the windows do not admit sufficient light, the doors, even the walls, hardly afford shelter against the blast. The labourer is seen in his wretched dwelling, borne down by want and toil; his principal food is cheese or milk, which cannot be of a very good quality, for the cows are ill-fed, and they are used in common with oxen in the plough. But the people are laborious and worthy of a better fate; the country-women, who carry on their heads the provisions which they sell in the towns, are generally employed in knitting stockings, or in turning the spindle as they go to market. It is not uncommon for the peasants in their leisure hours to carry sackfuls of earth to places difficult of access, and which the kindness of the proprietor allows them to cultivate. They are degraded by the prejudices which prevailed throughout France about three centuries ago, and by ignorance, not of their duties, for they are honest and upright, but of whatever regards their comfort and welfare; it may be truly said that more knowledge and less superstition might enable them to enjoy the blessings, of which their laborious perseverance renders them not unworthy.

BOOK CXLV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—France. Fourth Section. Eastern Region.

LYONNAIS, Burgundy, Franche-Comté, and Alsace make up the eastern region. The inhabitants are more enlightened and more wealthy than those in the central departments; the relative population is also greater; the superficial extent is equal to 2960 square leagues, the number of individuals to 4,160,000, or the mean number in every square league to 1416. The Forez heights separate the two regions; in the one the people are ignorant, poor and wretched; in the other they are well informed, industrious and happy: how happens it that such differences exist in a country, of which all the inhabitants enjoy the same privileges, and are governed by the same laws? They may be accounted for by many concurring causes, but the facility of communications is perhaps the most effectual of any. The region we are about to enter is better provided with roads, navigable rivers and canals than any other that has been yet described, and it possesses no other advantage which exerts a greater influence on the industry of the inhabitants, or contributes more to improvements of every sort.

Department of Loire.

The department of Loire is watered from the southern to the northern extremity by the river of the same name, which flows between granite chains, sandstone and ancient calcareous rocks, traversing lands ill adapted for fruitful

BOOK CXLV.

harvests, as their insufficiency attests, but valuable on account of their coal, iron and lead. Metals rendered subservient to many domestic purposes, lint and flax woven to satisfy the luxury of the rich, or the wants of the poor, silk made to assume a thousand different tints, or changed into articles which the caprice of fashion multiplies almost to infinity, yield greater profits to the inhabitants than any that could be derived from the culture of the richest soil.

Of the three districts into which the department of Loire is divided, Saint-Etienne is the most industrious and the most populous. The people in the small town of Bourg-Argental rear many silk-worms; they are also employed in manufacturing crapes and different stuffs. The inhabitants of Chambon work their coal mines, manufacture ribbons, export a great many nails, knives, and files; Firmini carries on a trade in the same articles. A fine walk leads to Saint Chamond, a town of six thousand inhabitants, where public baths have been lately erected. The waters of the Ban and the Gier serve to move different works and not fewer than thirty ribbon manufactories.

Rive de Gier.

Rive de Gier contains more than eight thousand inhabitants; the wealth of the town may be attributed to glass and iron works, and to mines of excellent coal, worked by means of forty steam engines; it is situated near the junction of three valleys on the Givor canal and the small river of Giers. The village of Berardiere in the neighbourhood of the chief town, may be mentioned on account of its steel foundries.

Rail road.

The immense progress that industry has already made in France, renders it difficult to assign any limits to future improvements, but from what has been already done, it is reasonable to suppose that much more may be accomplished. A rail-way, now almost finished, extends from Saint-Etienne to Lyons, so that goods may soon be conveyed from the one place to the other in half the time that is at present necessary. The distance may be equal to twenty-five or twenty-six miles; the difficulties that have been overcome since 1827, have wholly changed the appearance of the country. Hills and valleys are levelled, 620,000

cubic yards of hard rock have been torn from the soil, 120,000 cubic yards of earth have been taken away, and in order to fill up the inequalities in the ground, 110,000 have been removed from one place to another; on the whole line, not fewer than a hundred and twelve arches, each of them forming a bridge, have been raised, and it has been necessary to cut through a high hill in the neighbourhood of Saint-Etienne. It is calculated that at no distant period steam-engines travelling at the rate of five miles an hour, and dragging each fifteen loaded wagons, may be substituted for the eighteen hundred carts and carriages that pass daily between the two towns.

Saint-Etienne.

Saint-Etienne, says a good judge of such places, is built without regularity; there as well as in many commercial towns, order and beauty are of secondary importance.* Workshops covered with tiles, darkened with smoke and without windows, resembling the abodes of the Cyclops, surround the elegant and modern town-house, which the inhabitants erected on the Place-Neuve. The streets are obscured by a dark and light dust, which covers clothes, houses and even furniture. It is, however, in these very streets that the people manufacture the light gauze, the blond and dazzling ribbons, for which the whole of Europe is tributary to France. Contiguous houses are inhabited by armourers and embroiderers; the movement of the loom is heard in the streets, and the noise of the anvil resounds in the fields. "I have seen," continues M. Blanqui, "men on horseback, who to judge from their squalid dress, might be thought unable to afford linen, I afterwards discovered that they were the proprietors of productive iron works. Miners without shirts refuse to take charity; beggars with shirt-ruffles walk the streets of Paris. The houses, which formed formerly part of the suburbs, are now in the heart of the town, and the number of inhabitants has increased within a period of less than ten years from twenty to forty thousand. What a contrast to Montbrison, the capital of the department, which is inhabited principally by the

* Relation d'un voyage au midi de la France, pendant les mois d'Aout et de September, 1828, by M. Adrien Blanqui.

BOOK CXLV.

wealthy and the idle, there the population decreases incessantly, and all the mendicants in Forex resort to it!"

Montbrison

Saint-Etienne contains a royal armoury, forty in which arms of every sort are made, fifty-five places in which hardwares and cutlery are wrought, a hundred and fifty ribbon and velvet manufactories. Montbrison might rival it both in trade and in manufactures, for the Vizezy which flows through the town, furnishes enough of water to move the most important works. But the inhabitants do not devote themselves to any branch of industry, and the town is ill-peopled and ill-built. The only edifice to which any additions have lately been made, is the royal college; it is unnecessary to add that these additions were made by government. Many suppose that the present town was founded in the twelfth century by Brison, who gave it the Latin name of *Mons-Brisonis*. The mineral waters are held in great reputation, and several remains of antiquity prove that they were not unknown to the Romans. It was from the summit of the volcanic rock which commands Montbrison, that the sanguinary baron of Adrets precipitated the catholics who were taken prisoners during the civil wars. The small town of Saint-Galmier carries on a trade in wax-lights for the use of churches; it stands on an eminence not far from the Croize. A mineral spring rises from a rock near the town, and the waters that issue from it, have a strong vinous flavour. Feurs is situated on the road between Thiers and Lyons, it is the *Forum Segusianorum*, the ancient capital of the *Segusiani*, the name was afterwards extended to the province of Forez.

Roanne.

The Gand flows below the small town of Saint-Symphorien-de-Lay, a place of some importance from its trade and manufactures. It is situated in the district of Roanne, an ancient town which Ptolemy calls *Rodumna*, but it became a mere village about the commencement of the eighteenth century; the industry of the inhabitants has since restored it to something like its former rank, it is at present well built, and the population amounts to more than eight thousand individuals. Some Roman monuments have resisted the vicissitudes of time and barbarism.

Department of the Rhone.

If there is any department in France, which may be said to prove the superiority of manufacturing over agricultural industry, it is certainly the department of the Rhone. The soil, intersected by hills and valleys, is not very fruitful; it does not yield one half of the grain or timber necessary for the consumption. But if the harvests are scanty, the vineyards are productive, and the wines of an excellent quality; the best are those of Cote Rotie and Condriex. Artificial meadows afford pasture to many herds of oxen, to flocks of sheep and goats. It would be incorrect to ascribe the deficiency in corn to the negligence of the husbandman; on the contrary, he appears to derive from the fields all the profit that can be obtained from them. The flourishing state of the country must be attributed to its manufactories; indeed if the department of Nord be excepted, there is no other in France, which contains so great a population relatively to the surface, for the mean number of inhabitants on every square league is equal to two thousand nine hundred and fifty-four. Copper and coal, the most valuable substances on the heights are the materials with which the numerous foundries are supplied.

Tarare.

The population of Tarare does not exceed seven thousand inhabitants, it contains, however, not fewer than sixty-five muslin manufactories, and twenty-five of embroidered work; the latter are the first of the kind that were established in France, they afford employment at present to more than fifty thousand workmen, who are scattered in different districts. The town stands at the foot of a hill which bears its name, and on the left bank of the Tardine, a small river that sometimes inundates the neighbouring fields, but the devastations thus occasioned, are amply redeemed by the advantages the manufacturer derives from it. Thizy and Amplepuis rival each other in their cotton manufactures. The village of Tours carries on a trade in the mixed stuffs, with which it supplies different departments, they are made of linen and cotton, and known in France by the name of *beaujolaises*. Beaujeu is certainly a small town, but it is well-built, and finely situated on the Ardiere, at the base of a hill overtopped by the ruins of the strong castle that belonged to the

BOOK CXLV.

lords of Beaujeu. It possesses several paper mills, and carries on no inconsiderable trade in wine. The same trade and the sale of embroidered works tend to enrich Belleville-sur-Saone. The two last towns contain nearly an equal number of inhabitants, the population of each amounts at least to three thousand individuals. Ville-Franche, the capital of the wealthy district in which they are situated, consists of a broad street about a mile and a half in length, and of houses grouped round it, which form the suburbs. The lands watered by the Saone and the Morgon are very fruitful; the neighbouring hills are covered with vineyards. It must be admitted, however, that the picturesque scenery round Ville-Franche has not been much improved by cultivation; as a manufacturing town, it is a place of considerable importance. The village of Chessy near the left bank of the Arbresle, is about three leagues on the south of it; it contains six hundred inhabitants, and it is well known on account of the most productive copper mines in France.

Ville-Franche.

Lyons.

Lyons is remarkable for the beauty of its situation, for the view which the country houses in the neighbourhood command, for the four suburbs and twenty quays on the Saone and Rhone. The gentle movements of the first river and the rapidity of the second form a striking contrast. The Saone offers an emblem of peace—favourable to the arts, to commerce and to industry; vessels are continually sailing up and down its streams, and seventeen harbours are situated on its banks. The Rhone, emblematic of war and civil discord, is an impetuous torrent which the temerity of man does not always brave with impunity; the loud noise of its waters is the only sound that can be heard on the dismal and deserted banks. Other and less pleasing contrasts may be observed in the same town; there are not fewer than fifty-six squares, in almost all of them rubbish and filth are heaped round sumptuous monuments. The two hundred and forty-five streets are ill-paved, narrow and dirty; and as rain is of frequent occurrence they are very often wet. All the inhabitants must be indifferent about the cleanliness of their town, otherwise the same filth could not be seen near mean shops, costly warehouses, the

humble abode of the artisan, and the habitation of the wealthy merchant. The *canuts* or silk weavers prepare in their smoky garrets light crapes, brilliant satins and pliable tafetas of the freshest colours; no sooner have they been taken from their dirty hands, than they are sent to Paris, where they assume the various shapes that fashion renders indispensable.

Origin and antiquity.

Lyons or rather *Lugdunum* was one of the principal cities in the dominions of the *Segusiani* at the time that Cæsar took it from the Gauls. About forty years before the vulgar era Munatius Plancus received instructions from the Roman senate to allow the people of Vienne, who had been driven from their town by the *Allobroges* to settle in Lugdunum. It became not long afterwards one of the most flourishing Roman settlements in France; Strabo says that it was only inferior in population to Narbonne. The importance and the admirable position of the town rendered it frequently the residence of the governors of Gaul. It was first built on the declivity of a hill, which rises on the right bank of the Saone; it was embellished by many noble monuments, but they were all destroyed by fire in a single night. This disastrous event, of which history affords fortunately but few examples, happened in the year 59 of the Christian era, during the reign of Nero, by whom it was rebuilt. It does not require a minute examination of ancient edifices to be convinced that the Romans knew well how to avail themselves of the inequalities on the ground, indeed their towns had an air of majesty, which we look for in vain in modern cities. The palace of the emperors rose on the hill of Saint-Just, where the monastery of Antiquaile, now changed into an hospital for *Incurables*, was afterwards built. The name of the convent appears to have been derived from the number of medals and other antiquities, which were discovered in digging the foundation. An amphitheatre was erected on the same height, and some remains of it are still seen in the gardens round the convent of the Minims. The waters of the Rhone and the small river Furaut were conveyed by means of an aqueduct at least two leagues in length, to different parts of the town. Sixty Gallic nations raised at the confluence

BOOK CXLV.

of the Saone and Rhone an altar to Augustus, of which the four principal columns were afterwards removed to the altar in the church of Saint-Martin-d'Ainay. But the two rivers meet no longer at the same place; more than fifty years have elapsed since Perrache the sculptor thought it practicable to divert the course of the Saone, which now falls into the Rhone below its former confluence; the ancient channel was thus drained, and it now forms a public walk. The four Roman roads traced by Agrippa passed through Lyons, one by Auvergne and Aquitaine extended to the Pyrenees, another to the Rhine, a third by Picardy to the Ocean, and a fourth by Narbonnic Gaul to the Mediterranean. A rock that was cut by order of Agrippa, still bears the name of *Pierre-Scise;* Buchard of Burgundy built on it in the eleventh century, a formidable castle, which was in later times changed into a state prison. The name of many places in the town and neighbourhood of Lyons are connected with ancient associations.

Squares.

In the time of the Romans, Bella-Curia was the name of the place, from which the pretor pronounced his decrees, it is at present the square of Bellecour. The elegant buildings which adorned it, were demolished by a furious conventionalist, they were raised anew by Napoleon. It forms a regular square, and the fronts of two very large edifices supported by pilasters and surmounted by ballustrades, make up the greater part of two opposite sides; the houses are shaded by lime trees. The hill of Fourviere is situated within the original enclosure of the *Forum Vetus,* or according to some antiquaries, the *Forum Veneris* that Trajan erected. The hill was called after the forum, and an ancient building on it was consecrated to the catholic worship by Pius the Seventh during his short residence in the town in 1805. The square of Terreaux may recall events of a different nature, events that have left an indelible stain on the page of history; there Cinq-Mars suffered death for having attempted a change in the administration of his country, or rather for having united with some others against the proud and vindictive minister of Lewis the Thirteenth; there too the virtuous president De Thou

was beheaded, because he chose to die rather than betray his friend.

Historical recollections.

Lyons is connected with many historical events; it was there that Pertinax died; Albinus and Severus contended for the empire, and the town declared for the former, opened its gates to him after his defeat, and was leveled with the ground by the victor; a hundred and fifty years elapsed before it rose from its ruins. It formed a part of the Burgundian kingdom during the fifth century. It was at one time subject to the kings of France, at another under the power of its archbishops, but it was taken from the latter by Guy, count of Forez. After many wars between the descendants of the count and the clergy, the latter recovered their authority; but the town was not more fortunate, for the canons of Lyons assumed the title of counts, and the people had to submit to a double tyranny—the arrogance of the nobility, and the rapacity of the church. Lewis the Gros by introducing the municipal system into his dominions, rendered the sword and mitre less oppressive. It might be shown indeed that the effects of the change were felt at Lyons before the town was added to the monarchy. But during a hundred years after the same period, the archbishops continued their depredations, and the people were frequently excited to revolt; at last Saint-Lewis declared himself the arbiter of the scandalous exactions on the part of the church, and of the resistance which such proceedings rendered lawful on the part of the people; by the decision of the same prince, Lyons was included within the dominions of the crown. From that epoch the citizens had the right of electing their own magistrates, of controlling and keeping their accounts; lastly, no burgess could be cited in judgment beyond the walls of the town. It was at the general council held at Lyons in 1245, that the cardinals by an order of Pope Innocent the Fourth, clothed themselves for the first time in scarlet. This wealthy city was destroyed in 1793 by the revolutionary army after a siege of sixty-five days, because the inhabitants attempted to free themselves from popular tyranny. Two deputies of the convention at the head of sixty thousand men could not

BOOK CXLV.

effect a capitulation until the town was bombarded, until the besieged had suffered all the horrors of famine. The principal edifices were demolished, and in conformity to a decree, the town was called *Ville-Affranchie*. Cruel mockery, worthy of the period, the anarchy-men confounded freedom with the work of destruction!

Industry.

The commercial prosperity of Lyons dates from the reign of Francis the First; the inhabitants learnt from the Genoese the art of manufacturing silk. The town contained about forty years ago 180,000 individuals, and there were not fewer than 18,000 looms, which were annually supplied with 12,000 hundred-weights of raw materials. In consequence of the acts of the Convention, the population was greatly diminished; and it appears indeed that in 1802 the number of looms was reduced to seven hundred. When France by colossal strides extended her frontiers from the Tiber to the Elbe, Lyons became again an important manufacturing town; still, however, the population is not so great as it once was, for with the suburbs of Vaise, Croix-Rousse and Guillotiere, it amounts only to 172,000 persons; but it may be observed that the manufactures have increased since the time that silks were generally worn. The number of looms is equal to nearly twenty thousand, manual labour has been abridged by improved machinery, and the products of each workman are greater. Thus, with a diminished population it manufactures more than it did forty years ago; and as the inhabitants consume much more, the revenue has increased in proportion, according to the last accounts it exceeds 3,120,000 franks, or L.130,000.

Edifices.

The Lyonese allow that their town is very dirty, but they insist that the edifices are very magnificent; as if fine buildings were in good keeping with filthy streets. The time in which the cathedral was founded, has not been ascertained, it may be admired for the imposing simplicity of the interior, and the richness of the portal. The palace of the archbishops was built in the reign of Lewis the Thirteenth; in point of size it might serve as a residence to kings. Two edifices are situated in the quarter of Saint-Clair—the most fashionable part of Lyons; they

rise at no great distance from each other; the one or the Great Theatre reflects the highest credit on the architectural talent of the celebrated Soufflot, the second or the town-house, if one only be excepted, may be allowed to be the finest in Europe. Within the chamber of commerce and arts are the exchange together with the collections of paintings and antiquities, an union descriptive of the character of the people, who estimate the arts and sciences only inasmuch as they may be made subservient to trade and industry. The ancient convent of the Trinity has been changed into a royal college, it contains the most valuable provincial library in France, a library consisting of a hundred and six thousand volumes and eight hundred manuscripts in different languages.

Scientific societies.

In Lyons, as well as in other places, the desire of knowledge has increased of late years, it is to be hoped that it may become still more general, that it may extend to every class of the community. The wealthy by diffusing the blessings of education, have it in their power to confer the greatest benefits on the poorer citizens, and to secure the prosperity of their town, for the concomitants of diffused knowledge are additional industry, improvements of every sort, public tranquillity and public happiness. There are at present in Lyons a society of agriculture and natural history, another of medicine, and a third of pharmacy, a Linnaen society, and a royal academy of sciences, arts and belles lettres. Among the schools and places of education, we may mention one of rural economy and the veterinary art, another of arts and trades, and a third of drawing; public lectures are besides delivered on natural history, chemistry, geometry and physics.

Charitable institutions

The beneficent institutions attest that in Lyons at least, philanthropy is not an empty sound, a word void of meaning. The infirmary is the best institution of the kind in France. Fourteen hundred children are admitted every year into an hospital, in which four times that number are educated and maintained. A religious house has been set apart for such as are afflicted with the loss of reason, and in another building the best means are provided for the instruction of the deaf and dumb; in addition to these

BOOK CXLV.

places may be mentioned a savings-bank for the whole department, together with different friendly and benevolent societies.

Celebrated men.

The names of all the distinguished men that have been born at Lyons since the most remote times to the present, might form a long list. Germanicus, Claudius, Marcus-Aurelius, Caracalla, Geta, the bishop Sidonius Apollinaris, Peter Valdo the reformer, Philibert Delorme the architect of the Tuilleries, Coustou and Coysevox the celebrated statuaries, Anthony de Jussieu the botanist, Morellet the political economist, Rozier, a writer on agriculture, Patrin the natural historian, and Marshal Suchet are the most remarkable persons whose names occur at present to our recollection.

The minute description which such a city as Lyons requires, may be apt to make us forget that there are other places in the neighbourhood. The people of Saint-Genis-Laval manufacture oil, different colours and banners; the pictures with which they supply several churches, may with equal accuracy be denominated *manufactures*. Arbresle is situated at the confluence of the Brevanne and the Tardine; the town was completely destroyed by inundations in 1715, but it was soon afterwards rebuilt; the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in lint.

Department of Ain.

The course of the Rhone on the east and the south, and the Saone on the west, form the limits of the department which the Ain waters from north to south. The last river divides it into two regions: the eastern on the right consists of an undulating ridge, in which the lands are argillaceous and in many places humid and marshy; the western on the left is covered with heights about 2,600 or 3000 feet in elevation, they are attached to the Alps by the chain of Jura. The same country is watered by impetuous torrents, and intersected by deep vallies, almost all of which extend from north to south. In the first region, agriculture forms the principal occupation of the inhabitants, and the harvests are sufficient for the consumption; the people in the second cultivate fruitful vallies, rear a great number of sheep and horses, work iron and different quar-

ries that afford excellent materials for building, and the best lithographic stones in France.

Trevoux.

Few cities of any importance are situated in the department. Trevoux, built like an amphitheatre on the left bank of the Saone, is the capital of a district, in which the principal places are Montluel, a town of three thousand eight hundred inhabitants, many of whom are employed in manufacturing cloth, and Thoissy, the birthplace of the celebrated Bichat. The small but neat town of Pont-de-Vaux on the banks of the Ressouse, communicates with the Saone by means of a canal; the inhabitants have erected a fountain in the form of a pyramid to the memory of General Joubert, their townsman. Bourg-en-Bresse, so called from the name of the ancient province of which it was the capital, is at present the chief town in the department. It rises on the site of *Tanus*, which was founded about the end of the fourth century; it is well built, watered by fountains, and embellished with agreeable walks on the Ressouse and the Veyle; its commerce might be greatly improved if it were within reach of navigable rivers. It has given birth to two great men, Vaugelas and Lalande.

Bourg-en-Bresse.

The districts of Belley and Nantua, or the territory between the Rhone and the Ain, were formerly called Bugey, a country connected with ancient recollections, and abounding in picturesque sites. Polybius was of opinion that this small region might be termed the Celtic Delta, a name to which it is still entitled from its triangular form. Belley or the capital existed at the time that Brennus undertook his expedition against Rome, and was destroyed by the barbarians, who fled at the approach of the fierce Gaul; it did not become a place of importance until the country was conquered by the Romans. The ancient names of Belley are *Bellitium*, *Bellicum* and *Bellica*. Alaric burnt it in the year 390; twenty years afterwards it was rebuilt and enlarged by his nephew Wibert. It was destroyed a second time by fire in 1385; but Amadeus the Seventh, count of Savoy, repaired it and encompassed it with walls. The small village of Frebuge near Nantua, is the *Forum Sebusianum*, once the principal city of the Sebusiani, but it has been confounded by some authors with

Belley.

BOOK CXLV.

Nantua.

Bourg-en-Bresse. Nantua derives its name from the *Nantuates;* it is situated in a mountain pass bounded by steep rocks, near a lake shaded with trees; the banks form an agreeable walk, and the waters abound in excellent trout the inhabitants manufacture linen and paper. Oyonnax, a burgh at no great distance from Nantua, contains fifteen hundred inhabitants; they carry on a trade in the same kind of goods. An author who has favoured the world with his etymological researches on Bugey, maintains that Oyonnax was founded by the Rhodians three centuries before the vulgar era.* The people, who inhabited the county of Gex, having encouraged the invasion of their neighbours the Helvetii into Gaul, Cæsar subdued the invaders and united Gex to the territory of the *Sebusiani.* The town is ill built and difficult of access; a terrace that rises above the principal street commands an admirable view of the Leman lake and the mountains of Savoy grouped round the majestic Mont-Blanc. From the same terrace may be seen Fernex or Ferney in an agreeable valley; it was only a hamlet of fifty inhabitants when Voltaire made it the place of his residence; but that great men introduced a new branch of industry, and Ferney contained before his death, eight hundred watchmakers and workmen; their number at present does not exceed a thousand.

Gex.

Department of the Saone and Loire.

It is only necessary to cross the Saone to enter into a different country, a country fruitful in wine and corn, abounding in coal, lead, iron and manganese, intersected by roads, canals and navigable rivers, peopled by industrious inhabitants. Macon, the capital of Saone-et-Loire, is situated on the right bank of the Saone at the frontiers of the department. The position may be favourable for the trade in wine, but a worse one could not be selected for the seat of the principal authorities. The town was called *Matisco* by Cæsar, who strengthened it with fortifications, and rendered it a depot for military supplies. Several ancient ruins are contained in it, and an old bridge which still remains, is supposed to have been erected by the Roman general. The houses are by no means elegant,

* M. P. Bacon, Recherches sur les origines Celtiques de Bugey, tome i.

the streets are narrow and ill paved, but the quays are broad and well built. The sanguinary Saint-Point, who flourished in the sixteenth century, and rendered himself infamous during the religious wars by the atrocities that were then termed the *Sauteries of Macon*, was a native of the town. The fine cathedral was destroyed by the revolutionists, but they spared the ancient episcopal palace. The village of Romaneche contains two thousand inhabitants, and the country in the neighbourhood is famous for its wines. Cluny, a town of four thousand souls, and a place of considerable trade, was formerly celebrated on account of a magnificent abbey belonging to the Benedictines. The convent has been changed into a college, and it contains besides other useful institutions. The town was the birthplace of Prudhon the painter; Greuze, not less celebrated as a painter, was born at Tournus; the monument which was raised to his memory, is certainly the greatest, perhaps the only ornament that can be found in the town. The population amounts to five thousand individuals, the principal manufactures are hats and coverlets.

Tournus.

Charolles was formerly the chief town in the small province of Charollais; it is at present the capital of a district which possesses several manufactories and four or five iron works. Bourbon-Lancy contains two thousand five hundred individuals; it is still frequented on account of its mineral waters, the baths were constructed by the Romans; the town bears the name of *Aquæ-Misinei* in the Theodosian tables. It is unnecessary to go out of the road to examine Seille-Louhans, for it consists only of some old houses that project into the streets. Chalons-sur-Saone rivals Macon in commerce and industry. An old bridge that leads to the suburbs may recall an act of cruelty committed by Lothaire; that prince hated the sons of the count of Toulouse, to satisfy his vengeance he ordered their sister, the fair and virtuous Gerberge, to be dragged at a horse's tail along the bridge, she was afterwards put into a cask, and thrown into the Saone. The town is well built, quays have been constructed along the river, and a lofty obelisk serves to adorn a public walk. Chalons was an important milita-

Charolles.

Chalons-sur-Saone.

BOOK CXLV.

ry station in the time of Cæsar; by whom it is called *Cabinolinum*, but as Danville remarks, there are few places in France, of which the ancient name has been written in so many different ways.* Denon was a native of Chalons.

The small town of Montcenis rises on a height between two mountains at some distance on the west of the Central Canal; coal and iron mines are worked in the neighbourhood. The burgh of Creusot is a place of considerable trade; it exports glass and crystal to most parts of France, it has its cannon foundries and iron works. Autun rises at the confluence of the Arroux and the Creusevaux; it was the *Bibracte* of the *Ædui*, but it received the name of *Augustodunum* during the empire. Triumphal arches, the ruins of temples or amphitheatres, and the extent of the old walls attest that it was much larger and without doubt much more populous in ancient times than at present. It stands on an eminence above an ancient *Campus Martius*, which has been transformed into a fine walk shaded with trees.

Autun.

Department of Cote-d'Or.

The nature of the country has pointed out two different occupations to the people in Cote-d'Or; the one consists in cultivating the ground, the other in working metals. With more roads than the average number in other departments, it is comparatively thinly peopled; but it may be urged that the occupations in which the inhabitants are engaged, do not require so many hands as other branches of industry. If the vineyards be excepted, the country is not well cultivated; under better management, a number of oxen and sheep sufficient for the consumption might easily be reared. The course of the Ouche divides the department into two distinct regions; the one on the south, along which the small chain of Cote-d'Or extends, is admirably adapted for the culture of the vine; part of the ridge of Langres rises on the other or the northern, which may be styled the region of iron, there Vulcan seems to reign.

* Ptolemy calls it Caballinum; Strabo, Cabyllinum; Ammianus Marcellinus, Cabillo; in the Itinerary of Antonine, Cabellio; in the Imperial Tables, Caballodunum, in the tables of Puttinger, Cabilio.

To judge of the richness of the southern region, it is only necessary to travel the road which leads from Chalons-sur-Saone to Beaune and Dijon. The burgh of Nolay, not far from Beaune, the birthplace of the celebrated Carnot, is encompassed with the vineyards of Mont-Rachet. The different growths of Meursault rival each other, while Pomard and Volnay are equally famous for their light wines. The vineyards of Richebourg, Romannée and Clos-Vougeot encircle the small but picturesque town of Nuits. Beaune is situated in the middle of the same rich country, and its successive embellishments may be attributed to an improving trade. The most remarkable edifice in the town, is the hospital founded in 1443 by Rollin, chancellor to Philip, duke of Burgundy. It is well known that the same chancellor imposed very heavy taxes on the people, "as he has reduced many to poverty," said Lewis the Eleventh, "he is right to build a house for them." Monge, the philosopher, who promoted the Polytechnic school, is one of the few great men that Beaune has produced. The vineyards in the territory extend on the right of the Saone to the small town of Jean de Losne, a place of sixteen hundred inhabitants, and one that holds no mean celebrity in the military annals of France. It was besieged in the year 1636 by the great dukes Galeas at the head of sixty thousand men; it was defended by eight pieces of cannon, fifty soldiers and four hundred inhabitants, determined to die rather than to surrender; among the latter were Peter Desgranges and Peter Lapre, two magistrates whose admirable example was imitated by the citizens. The town supported two assaults, during which women fought at the side of their brothers and husbands. A fall of rain that lasted twelve hours, afforded the besieged some respite from continued labour, in that interval they resolved to spring their houses and to perish in the ruins; but on the ninth day the imperial army, daunted by their heroic efforts, raised the siege. A few hours afterwards a body of French troops came to the assistance of the town; Lewis the Thirteenth offered titles of nobility as a reward for so great heroism, the inhabitants had the spirit and good sense to refuse them.

Nolay.

Beaune.

Jean de Losne.

The vineyards in the neighbourhood of Beaune meet

Dijon.

BOOK CXLV.

others near Dijon; the different growths of Brochon, Chenove, Beze and Chambertin near Gevray, are so well known that the reader may form some notion of these villages from the commercial importance of their products. Dijon stands in the middle of a pleasant and fruitful valley, enclosed on one side by verdant hills. The streets are broad and straight, the houses are large and well built; the Ouche and the Suzon meet in the town, and the ramparts that surround it, are shaded by lofty trees. A Gothic castle built by Lewis the Eleventh, and flanked with massive towers, is all that remains of the ancient fortifications. The front of the ancient palace that belonged to the dukes of Burgundy, adorns the Royal square, the finest of the fifteen squares in Dijon. In the same edifice are contained a library of forty thousand volumes, together with valuable collections of paintings, statues, antiquities and natural history; the old tower that overtops it, serves as an observatory. The cathedral is a Gothic building, of which the boldness cannot be too much admired; the portal of Saint-Michel may be mentioned as a specimen of finished workmanship; the church of Saint-Benigne is surmounted by a steeple, three hundred and seventy-five feet in height. The park, a public walk, communicates with the town by a road or avenue formed by four rows of trees. Science and literature have been long cultivated and honoured at Dijon; in proof of this assertion, it is hardly necessary to mention the college, the schools of philosophy, law and medicine, or the names of Bossuet, Crebillon, Piron, Freret, Rameau, Saumaise, Daubenton and Guyton-Morveau. Dijon was founded before the Roman conquest, it was then called *Dibio;* Marcus Aurelius was the first who encompassed it with walls and thirty-three towers. Gregory of Tours informs us that the emperor Aurelian adorned it with temples, and rendered it an important fortress; much about the same period, it was known by the name of *Divio.*

If there are other important places in the same department, it may be attributed not to vineyards and wine presses, but to forests, forges and iron works. The town of Auxonne consists of straight streets, ramparts forming pleasant walks, a fine bridge across the Saône, bounded

Auxonne.

on one side by a stone embankment two thousand four hundred yards in length, a work which was completed in the year 1505 to defend the town against the inundations of the river;* it contains besides an arsenal and a royal foundry. Fontaine-Francaise, a populous and wealthy burgh, may be mentioned on account of a monument which was erected to commemorate the victory that Henry the Fourth gained over the duke of Mayenne and the Spanish troops; it possesses several furnaces, and exports wheels for machinery.

Saulieu, a town of three thousand inhabitants, and the birthplace of the celebrated Vauban, is situated on the west of the canal of Burgundy; it carries on a considerable trade in fire-wood and in naval timber. The Armançon flows below the neat and small town of Semur-en-Auxois, which is built on the summit of a granite rock. Montbard rises like an amphitheatre above the canal of Burgundy; it is commanded by the castle where Buffon was born; the forges and furnaces that were erected by the great naturalist may be seen in the neighbourhood. There are not many iron works in the district of Semur, but there are more than thirty in that of Chatillon-sur-Seine. The last town was an important stronghold during the twelfth century; it was the scene in 1814 of the fruitless negociations between Napoleon and the allied powers. Different articles are now manufactured within its ancient castle.

Montbard.

The department watered by the Yonne is less populous than the last, but it produces more grain than the inhabitants consume. The woods and forests cover a great extent of surface; the vineyards are not only valuable from the quality of their produce, they yield twice as much wine as those in Cote-d'Or. Agriculture, however, has not attained the requisite degree of perfection, for in proportion to the surface, fewer oxen and sheep are reared than in the rest of France; indeed if it were not for the number of roads and navigable rivers, which enable the inhabitants to carry on their commerce, although a fruitful, it might be one of the poorest departments in the kingdom.

Department of the Yonne.

* It was built by order of Margaret of Bavaria, dutchess of Burgundy.

BOOK CXLV.

In a district situated on the right of the road that passes through the principal towns in Yonne, are united the romantic beauties of Switzerland, and the fertility which characterizes the vineyards in Burgundy. It is the district of Avallon, the ancient city of *Aballo* in the itinerary of Antonine, a place mentioned as an important fortress in the capitularies of the French kings. It is known, however, that it was besieged and taken in the year 931 by Emma, the wife of king Raoul. Seventy-four years afterwards, king Robert, coveting the fair country of Burgundy, made himself master of the town; but no sooner had his son Henry the First ascended the throne, than it was taken from him by his brother Robert who retained it with the title of duke. The houses are well built, and the situation is very romantic; the walk called the *Petit Cours*, owes its chief charm to its position above the steep banks of the Cousin, a small river that winds through a deep and sequestered valley, partly enclosed by precipitous rocks, towering above verdant woods or gardens that seem to hang in the air; in another direction the same valley leads to fruitful fields and extensive forests.

Avallon.

Vermanton

The town of Vermanton may contain about three thousand inhabitants; it carries on a trade in wine and timber; on the road that leads to it, and at no great distance from the village of Arcy-sur-Cure, are situated the open grottos which were formerly considered the greatest curiosities in the province. They consist of a great many halls that communicate with each other by narrow passages, so low in some places that it is necessary to stoop in order to pass through them; one of them encloses a small lake of which the depth has never been measured. All of them are covered with stalactites, like so many festoons, immoveable cascades, columns or artificial tubes, which when lightly struck emit sounds that are several times reechoed with different modulations. Beyond the confluence of the Cure and the Yonne, on the left of the last river, may be seen the hills, on account of which Coulanges has obtained the surname of *Vineuse*. Chablis, a town of two thousand five hundred inhabitants, famous for its white wines, is situated on the right, near the Seray: in the vici-

Chablis.

nity are the remains of a Roman way which led from Langres to Auxerre.

The vineyards of Ligny-le-Chatel, Seignelay, Toucy, and other places equally celebrated in the country, surround the former capital of Auxerrois; it might be difficult to determine its ancient name with scrupulous accuracy, but antiquaries may choose between *Altissiodorum*, *Autissiodorum* and *Antissiodorum*. It is certain, however, that the Romans made it the chief town of a *Pagus* by rendering it independent of *Senones*. Some wealthy wine merchants who have become collectors of antiquities, possess medals and coins which were found in the town, and which prove that money was once struck there. It was desolated at different times by the Huns, the Normans, the Saracens and the English; it was more than once pillaged during the religious wars in the sixteenth century; but the courageous resistance of one man preserved it from the crimes and horrors of Saint-Bartholomew. The inhabitants of Auxerre had been included in the proscribed lists which preceded the massacre; a magistrate, afterwards president Jeannin, whom historians call the *most virtuous minister* of Henry the Fourth, had the glory of saving his native city. Amyot holds the first rank among the learned men that were born in Auxerre; it has also given birth to John Duval, an able antiquary, to Royer de Pilles the author of the lives of the painters, to the abbé Leboeuf who has left many valuable writings concerning the history of Paris, to Saint-Palaye, known by his memoirs of chivalry, to Retif de la Bretonne, whose familiar style is well adapted for the task he undertook—a faithful picture of the burgesses and manners of his day, lastly, to Sedain, a dramatic writer of an inferior order, but one who understood at least what has been since termed stage-effect. There are many well-built houses in Auxerre, but the cathedral is the only edifice which attracts attention, it is adorned with a magnificent portal and finely painted windows. The marshal of Chastelux, after having taken Cravant from the English, restored in 1423 to the chapter of Auxerre; for this service the chapter granted a canonry in perpetuity to the eldest sons of the Chastelux

BOOK CXLV.

family. They took possession of it in boots and spurs, armed with a sword, and covered with the surplice, wearing the canonical amess on the left arm, holding a hawk, a hat and feathers in the right hand. It happened in the year 1683 that one of the marshal's descendants appeared in this singular costume in the cathedral before Lewis the Fourteenth and his court, some of the young nobles could not refrain from smiling; the king reproved them by asking if they would not wish to have such a proof of an ancestor's valour.

Joigny.

Joigny was founded in the year 1000, it must have been a wealthy and commercial town three hundred years afterwards, for the inhabitants paid a very large sum of money during the thirteenth century to free themselves from the authority of their counts; it rises like an amphitheatre above the banks of the Yonne, it is commanded by an old castle.

Sens.

Sens is situated on the right bank of the Yonne, the ramparts may be seen from a great distance; there is reason to believe that they were founded before the time that Julian maintained in *Agedincum* or *Senones*, a successful siege against the Germans. The same town became the capital of the Fourth Lyonnaise during the reign of Valens; it rose afterwards into greater importance, for Theodosius the Great made it the seat of an archiepiscopal see, the prelates styled themselves primates of Gaul and Germany; but the archbishop of Lyons claimed the first part of their pompous title. As the population of Sens has been long almost stationary, it may be inferred that industry has made little progress. In the year 1788 the number of inhabitants amounted to 7000, at present it does not exceed 9000. Several councils have met at Sens, the most celebrated perhaps is the one which was held about the beginning of the year 1140; it was there that Saint Bernard influenced by personal hatred, brought about the condemnation of Abeilard, but that celebrated theologian, not supposing his tenets *damnable*, appealed to the pope. The cathedral has an imposing effect, it occupies the centre of the finest square in the town. The mausoleum of the Dauphine and Dauphin, the father of Lewis the Sixteenth,

Lewis the eighteenth, and Charles the Tenth, has been replaced since the restoration of the Bourbon family; it consists of many allegorical figures, the work of Coustou the sculptor. A basso-relievo behind the choir, represents the martyrdom of Saint Savinian, the first bishop of Sens. The painted windows attest the genius of John Cousin, an early French painter and a native of Soucy, a village in the neighbourhood. There are not more than six thousand volumes in the public library; one of the manuscripts, which has been removed to the town-house, is a folio containing the *Officia Stultorum*, as they were formerly celebrated in the cathedral of Sens, and also a poetical panegyric of the Ass, which used to be repeated or chaunted in some of the churches. The binding of the manuscript is studded with ivory figures representing different subjects connected with the sacred bacchanals of an ignorant and corrupt age, which some have been pleased to style *the good old time*.

Festival of Fools.

The festival of fools holds the first rank among those in which sacred, profane and obscene exhibitions are united. It was generally celebrated about the beginning of the year, in some places on the day of the Circumcision, but in others on the day of the Innocents. Priests, deans and choristers elected a bishop or pope for the occasion, who appeared with the pontifical robes and the mitre, followed by a number of ecclesiastics, clad as kings, princes and dukes; there were besides many individuals in various disguises, some as women, others as different animals, or as Bacchus, satyrs and heathen divinities. To this motely group his holiness pronounced the benediction; the priests then danced round the choir, assisted in leading an ass covered with a magnificent cope, sung the eulogy of the same animal, and obscene songs, to which all the people brayed by way of response. While the pope or bishop was offering prayers at the altar, the other persons in the church sat down to a feast, got drunk, played at dice, burned old leather in the censers, and committed every sort of impiety. The songs which were sung on these occasions, have been attributed to Peter De Corbeil, an archbishop of Sens, who died about the beginning of the thirteenth century. The

BOOK CXLV.

cathedral has not been stained with these pollutions since the year 1530. The festival of fools, however, was not the only one of the sort, others of a similar nature were celebrated on the anniversaries of Saint Stephen and Saint John the Evangelist.*

Tonnere.

Tonnere is situated on the left of the Burgundy canal and the Armancon, a feeder of the Yonne; antiquaries consider it a very ancient town, indeed it is not improbable that it was inhabited long before the Roman invasion. The houses are well built, and the neighbouring country is famous for vineyards, of which the wines are imported into most parts of Europe. Tonnere possesses a college and a school of some celebrity, in which lectures are delivered on the application of geometry to the arts. It was the birthplace of Chevalier d'Eon de Beaumont, a person who rendered important services to his country, both as a diplomatist and a general.

Department of Upper Saone.

It is necessary to pass through part of the country which has been described, and to cross the Upper Saone in order to examine the two frontier departments in Franche-Compté and Alsace. The heights and valleys between the Saone and Oignon extend in the direction of these two rivers. Vineyards which produce only weak an dordinary wines, are situated nearer the banks of the second than the first, they cover a fortieth part of the surface; the woods and forests in different parts of the country may occupy a third part, arable lands less than a half, meadows not more than a tenth, and waste lands nearly a fifteenth part of the whole. Although agriculture has made great progress within the last twenty-five years, it is not unreasonable to expect from the number and extent of the roads in the department, that additional and important improvements in the same branch of industry may ere long be carried into effect. A great quantity of grain, however, is at present exported into the south, the culture of the potato has become general; many oxen are reared, but sheep have been so much neglected, that the total number does not exceed forty-five thousand, in other words,

* See the Glossary of Duchange, and the Traité des jeux by Thiers.

there is not certainly more than one sheep for sixteen inhabitants. Coal and iron mines, iron-works, forges and furnaces furnish the means of subsistence to 3500 individuals. The wages of labourers, overseers, and other expenses connected with these works, give rise to a circulation of L.400,000; the neat profit derived from the same source exceeds L.33,000. The wealth of the department may therefore be said to consist in its agriculture, in the works already mentioned, in the products of distilleries and different manufactories.

The district of Lure, the most industrious of the three into which the department has been divided, is situated at the western extremity. The burgh of Hericourt exports cotton stuffs, and Vyles-Lure possesses a muslin manufactory, in which nearly five hundred workmen are employed. Saint Bresson has been noted for its paper since the year 1660; it supplies the Parisians with the finest vellum paper that is sold in the capital; the value of the *kirschwasser*, which the people of Fougerolles send to the same place, varies from fifteen to twenty thousand pounds. Saint-Loup, a town of two thousand inhabitants, is situated on the right bank of the Angrone, it carries on a trade in straw-hats, woollen stuffs, horse-combs and bird-lime. Different articles of cutlery are manufactured in Plancher-les-Mines, which derives its name from a mine of argentiferous lead that is still worked. The white iron works near the village of Magnoncourt afford constant employment to more than two hundred and fifty workmen. Few other places of any consequence can be mentioned in the same part of the country; it may be remarked, however, that good hones are exported from Faucogney and Champagney, that granite quarries might be worked with profit near Melisey and Chateau-Lambert, a village well known for its excellent cheese.

Fougerolles.

Saint-Loup.

The ancient town of Luxeuil or Luxen stands in a fine situation on the confines of a large and fruitful plain, watered by the Brouchin and Lanterne, two rapid rivers abounding in fish; hills covered with lofty woods rise at no great distance from the town. The present name has been derived from *Lug* and *Levi*, two Celtic words which signify

Luxeuil.

BOOK CXLV.

warm water; it is certain, however, that the place was called *Lixovium* by the Romans. It appears from an inscription, that the baths were repaired by Labienus in conformity to the orders of Cæsar;* the most of them are now in ruins, but the ruins are not unworthy of the ancients; so long as the waters were held in repute, the inhabitants spared no expense to render the town agreeable to strangers. Lure, which is also a place of great antiquity, was formerly celebrated for an abbey, founded by Saint Deicole in the reign of Clotaire the Second. The chief of the monastery, who afterwards adopted the rule of Saint Benedict, entitled himself a prince of the Holy Empire; the building serves at present as a residence to the subprefect.

Vesoul.

According to the learned dissertations of certain antiquaries whose labour in illustrating the language and manners of the Celts, merited better success, the name of Vesoul comes from two Celtic words, *Ves*, tomb, and *houl*, sun; by a process of reasoning as ingenious as it is hypothetical, it has been discovered that the tomb of the sun was connected with an important part of the druidical worship. If the etymology be correct, the town must have existed at a very remote period; it happens unfortunately, however, that it was unknown to the ancients. No notice of it can be found in the history of France before the tenth century, and it is only mentioned as the theatre of two important events in the annals of Franche Comté. About the middle of the sixteenth century, a German army having returned destitute of provisions and money from an expedition against Bresse, resolved to plunder Vesoul. The general had called a council of war, in which it was agreed that an attempt should be made to scale the walls, but after a fall of rain that lasted twenty-four hours, the plain was covered with water, and the terrified Germans attributing the phenomenon to an interposition of providence, fled from Vesoul, leaving behind them their baggage and artillery. The flight of the Germans was occasioned by a natural cause; the waters of Frais-Puits had the merit of

* The inscription was discovered on the 23d of July 1755, among the ruins of the ancient *thermae*, it is now preserved in the townhouse. LIXOVII. THERM, REPAR. LABIENUS JUSS. C. JUL. CÆS. IMP.

saving the town. The bed of a torrent may be observed about the distance of a league from Vesoul; the same bed remains dry the greater part of the year, and the ravine through which it extends, terminates in a pool not less than fifty feet in depth by sixty in diameter; it too in ordinary seasons is almost dry, but after heavy rains a quantity of water is discharged from it, which inundates the neighbouring meadows, reaches to the lower part of the town, and changes into a sort of lake the sloping country towards the Saone. This phenomenon continues sometimes for three days, after which the waters retire, the gulf empties itself, and the torrent ceases to flow.* The siege, that has been mentioned, was by no means creditable to the baron of Polwillers, who ought to have respected a neutral territory, but in the same annals the name of Turenne is associated with an act of bad faith. No sooner had that hero presented himself in 1644 before the gates of the town than it surrendered; the conditions of the capitulation were signed, immediately afterwards it was pillaged; the convent of the Annonciades, where the inhabitants believed their wives, children and most precious effects to be safe, was not considered inviolable, the townhouse was demolished and the archives were destroyed. It is added that it was necessary to pledge the sacred vessels and to sell many valuable articles to pay the contributions, and redeem the hostages.

Industry and wealth have been diffused over Franche-Comté since it was united to France in the year 1678. Vesoul since the same period has been enlarged and embellished; the principal church, which may be remarked for the beauty of its altar, and also on account of an ancient sepulchre, was finished in 1745, the present townhouse in 1766, the courts of justice in 1770, the market place in 1772, the new walk in 1774, the barracks in 1777, and the prefect's palace in 1822. The public library has been placed in one of the halls of the college, it consists of more than twenty-one thousand volumes; in an adjoining apart-

* See the Annuairre du departement de la Haute-Saone pour l'année 1825, by M.M. Baulmont and Suchaux.

BOOK CXLV.] ment is a collection of natural history, to which valuable additions have lately been made.

Neighbourhood of Vesoul.

Several places not unworthy of notice are situated in the neighbourhood of Vesoul; the grottos of Echenos-les-Molines, at a short distance from the walls are remarkable for their extent; they contain many bones of animals now extinct. The foundations of vast edifices, traces of ancient ditches, and the remains of the Roman ways that have been discovered near Jussey, a town of two thousand six hundred inhabitants, serve to strengthen the tradition that it was built by a Roman colony in the third century. Corre is probably situated on the ruins of *Didatium*, a Gallic city; statues, basso-relievos and medals are found in this humble village—all that remains of an important town.

Gray.

Gray rises like an amphitheatre above the banks of the Saonne; it is certain that before the revolution, there were not fewer than eight convents in the town, it carries on at present a great trade in grain, flour and iron. The number of horses employed in conveying the goods by land, and in dragging them along rivers, amounts nearly to 80,000. In one work, equal perhaps to any other of the same sort in Europe, are saw and oil mills, mills for tanning leather, and felting cloth, and also a mill in which twenty-four thousand and sixty-six quarters of corn are annually ground. The streets are steep and crooked, the town is commanded by an old castle, which was inhabited by Philip the Bold, John-sans-Peur, Philip the Good, and Catharine of Burgundy, the widow of Leopold of Austria.

Department of Jura.

The lofty summits of Jura form part of the French territory; the chain has given its name to a very industrious department, richer perhaps in cattle than any other, abounding in woods, but ill provided with navigable rivers. The eastern part is the most mountainous, it may be said to consist of three ridges; the highest, contiguous to Switzerland, is covered with snow six months in the year, the lands are comparatively sterile, but the inhabitants are laborious; in the second, fir trees, box and juniper bushes predominate, but there are besides some rich pastures and fertile valleys; the third, less elevated than the

two others, is also less unfruitful. Mines of iron, quarries of marble, and saline deposits are worked below these ridges, low hills covered with vineyards that yield good wine, extend over a surface twenty leagues in length, lastly, plains consisting chiefly of arable land form the base or arena of this natural amphitheatre.

The northern part of the plain is watered by the Doubs, which flows below the forest of Chaux, a forest that covers several hills and a surface of 50,000 acres. Dole is situated on the banks of the river, at the foot of a hill planted with vineyards. The vast forest near the town, the Doubs and the canal of Monsieur, which bathe the walls and fructify the fields, the Loire, the Cusaince and the Glantine that wind at a distance, the curtain formed by the mountains from which these rivers take their source, and the double summit of Mont-Blanc, the most distant object in the picture, are all seen from the *Cours* or highest part of Dole. The town might be much improved if the streets were better paved, if the houses were more regular; according to the expression of a flowery writer,* 'it might then look like a nymph in the middle of a grove;' at present, however, it has certainly the appearance of a faded belle. It is very doubtful that Dole was ever a place of much importance; antiquaries may affirm the contrary, but it does not follow from a few medals, some remains of pilasters, some traces of Roman ways, or even from the ruins of an amphitheatre, that the town stands on the site of *Didatium*, besides it might be shown that Didatium was an inconsiderable city, although mention is made of it in the geography of Ptolemy. The antiquity of Dole may be very probable, but it ought not to be forgotten that its ancient name has not hitherto been discovered, and also that the surrounding country is well adapted for antiquarian research, since there is hardly a village that does not possess a monument of the Celts or Romans. More than one charitable institution, a prison that is said to be too elegant and too commodious, two or three manufactories, pub-

Dole.

* M. Dusillet, the mayor of the town.

BOOK CXLV.

lic walks and romantic views may enable the reader to form some notion of its edifices, position and industry.

Poligny.

To prove the antiquity of Poligny, it has been said that it derives its name from *Polis-Solis*, the city of the sun;* this important discovery and many others of the like kind, made by the antiquaries of Franche-Comté, may be the results of a creative imagination, certainly not of patient research. The position of *Castrum-Olinum*, as it is indicated in different itineraries, accords with that of Poligny. Although at present merely the residence of a sub-prefect, it was inhabited in the time of the Romans by the lieutenant of the Great Sequanaise, and it became under the Dukes of Burgundy, the summer residence of these princes; it rose then on the height which now commands it. The houses are well built, and the streets are kept clean by the waters that flow from several fountains. It has given birth to some celebrated men in their time; we may mention the prebend John Molinet, who translated the poem of the Rose, James Coitier, physician to Lewis the eleventh, and president of the court of exchequer, and lastly Nicolas Rollin, chancellor to Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy. Many ancient monuments are situated in the neighbourhood; two druidical stones are still held in great veneration by the peasantry, who believe that they turn round of their own accord every year, precisely at the time of the midnight mass. The ruins of Roman edifices are situated in different directions, but the purpose for which they were built, has not been determined. The people call them the *Chambrettes*, the traces of many halls or chambers are still apparent; little attention has hitherto been bestowed on them, it might be worth while, however, to make excavations in the vicinity; at least if we may judge from a large piece of mosaic, which the count de Caylus considered the finest specimen of the kind, and which lies at present some feet below the surface of a cultivated field.

Arbois.

The products of the vineyards form the principal wealth of the country round Poligny, but the best sorts are those

* See the Annuaire du Jura by M. Bruand.

near Arbois, a neat and well-built town, the birthplace of general Pichegru, and a place of some celebrity from the remains of Celtic monuments and Roman edifices. The ruins of the ancient castle are imposing; the people relate the nocturnal visits of the malignant spirits that haunt them; it appears that the fairy *Melusina* resides often in the highest and largest of the black towers. If these old traditions have not originated from an act of cruelty committed by Mahaut of Arbois, countess of Burgundy, they were at all events strengthened by them; during a severe famine, a great many poor people fled to the countess for refuge and subsistence, finding it impossible to provide for them all, she confined them in a large building which, together with the inmates, was burnt by her orders.

Salines.

Situated at the entrance of a narrow mountain pass, watered by the Furieuse, a small river, and commanded by the ruins of several old castles, Salines derives its name and wealth from salt springs which were found to be very profitable at so early a period as the sixth century, when Saint Sigismond, king of Burgundy, ceded them to the monks in the abbey of Saint Maurice d'Agaune. These monks worked the springs with so much zeal and intelligence that in a few years a large burgh rose in the neighbourhood of their abbey. Such was the origin of a town which has produced several distinguished men, among others, Fenouillot de Falbaire, the celebrated dramatist.* A destructive fire that lasted three days, laid Salines in ashes in the month of July 1825. The hospital and the salt works were the only buildings that remained; the first was too small to afford shelter to the numerous victims of the calamitous event, the second, although important, required only a small number of hands, still these must have been the only resources of the ruined inhabitants, had they not appealed to the generosity of their countrymen. Subscriptions were opened in every town, and the money given by the benevolent and the charitable, amounted to L.100,000, it was laid out in rebuilding the city. A spectacle was then exhibited, that afforded a signal proof of the eager-

* The best pieces of Falbaire are L'Honnete criminel and the Deux Avares.

BOOK CXLV.

ness with which the French receive instruction whenever it is offered to them: the workmen flocked every evening round an old pupil of the Polytechnic school, who applied his knowledge of geometry and mechanics to their immediate wants — to teach them the best and most economical method of building their houses.*

Lons-le-Saulnier.

The territory of Lons-le-Saulnier formed in the middle ages the greater part of Scoding or Sco-d'In, literally the country on the Ain, the inhabitants of which were distinguished then, as they are now, by their courage. The people in the high country that extends on the east of the town, are said to be more active and intelligent than their neighbours in the west, who prefer agricultural labour to manufacturing industry. Lons-le-Saulnier was founded in the fourth century; the name of the town signifies a measure of salt, and the vicinity of the salt springs may account for its origin.† Two small rivers, the Valiere and the Solvau, which water it, flow through an agreeable valley, surrounded with vineyards that yield excellent wine. The ruins of two strong castles, those of Montmorot and Pymont crown two hills that command the town. The Franciscan church, which was built in the year 1250, that of Saint Desiré, still more ancient, a large hospital that contains more than an hundred and fifty patients, and lastly, the salt works of which the annual produce exceeds twenty thousand hundred-weights, are the most remarkable or most useful buildings in Lons-le-Saulnier, the birthplace of general Lecourbe, of the lyric poet Rouget de Lisle, and of Roux de Rochelle, the author of the Three Ages. About two leagues northwards, and at no great distance from the village of Beaume, the sources of the Seille issue from the crevices in a calcareous rock, and form a frightful precipice more than four hundred feet in height, on which pieces of ice may be seen even in the fine days of spring.

* See the forces productives et Commerciales de la France, by M. Charles Dupin, who mentioned the same anecdote in the introductory lecture to his course at the Conservatoire Royal des Arts et Metiers.

† According to Gollut, an author who has written more than one valuable work on the early history and antiquities of Franche Comté, the *long* is a measure of salt, equivalent to twenty-four bushels.

Saint-Amour, a town of three thousand inhabitants, is situated near the western frontier of the department; several customs and ceremonies are preserved, which appear to have been handed down from a very remote period. The evening of the first Sunday in lent, or as the people call it, the evening of the *Brandons*, is observed with the greatest solemnity; all the village girls leave their cottages, and illumine the neighbouring hills with a thousand torches. It is not unlikely that the custom originated from a festival to commemorate the story of Ceres seeking her daughter Proserpine. If children lose their father, if a wife becomes a widow, the relatives meet in the house of the deceased, and partake of a repast; the women may minister consolation, but the men are only admitted to the feast, and one of them with a glass in his hand pronounces a sort of funeral oration. The burgh of Arinthod rises on the ruins of a Celtic temple dedicated to *Mars Segomon*, at least an ancient inscription has been discovered there in honour of that divinity, to whom the *Segoves*, a powerful tribe in Bresse, consecrated part of the spoils which they took from their enemies. The ruins of Oliferne, an ancient castle near Condes on the Ain, crown an almost inaccessible mountain, the only one in Jura which affords shelter to bears. The castle was destroyed in the sixteenth century, and on account of an obstinate resistance, all those who fled to it, were killed by the French. According to tradition, three noble ladies were put into a cask, and precipitated from the summit of the mountain into the river. There are few peasants in that part of the country who have not met these noble dames during the night, or who have not seen the lord of Oliferne and his attendants hunting in the neighbouring woods.

Ancient customs.

Several industrious burghs and villages are situated in the district of Saint Claude. Septmoncel is equally famous for toys and cheese, both of which are sent into different parts of France; neither ought it to be forgotten that twelve hundred persons find employment in making and cutting imitation gems. The village, which contains more than three thousand souls, was wholly destroyed by fire in 1826; but in places remarkable for the industry of their inhabitants, such calamities are soon forgotten. Chateau-des-Prés

Septmoncel.

BOOK CXLV.

supplies the neighbouring country with chairs, tables and different articles of household furniture. The burgh of Morez exports every year many clocks, watches, pendulums and spits. The people in Bois-d'Amont, a small village in the neighbourhood, make wooden cases for clocks, and an immense number of props for the vine dressers in the department. Saint Claude, a place of greater importance than any that has been mentioned, is the only one that remains to be described.

Saint Claude.

Two brothers, Romain and Lupicin, who are mentioned in different legends, founded an abbey within the territory of Saint Claude about the beginning of the fourth century. The wealth and revenues of the abbey were augmented by the profuse donations of French kings and pious princes in different parts of Christendom; indeed, in a short time the abbots of the monastery became lords of all the country, proprietors of all the lands, and sovereigns over all the inhabitants. The people allowed themselves to be divested of their privileges one after another; every individual who had resided in the country during a year, was enrolled among the vassals of the monks, by whose influence and example the inhabitants became inhospitable, indolent, cruel and superstitious. A law was passed that completed their degradation, the wife or children of a vassal could not succeed to his house, household furniture or moveable goods, they were sold for the benefit of the abbey; that iniquitous custom, against which Voltaire employed all his eloquence in vain, was not abolished before the reign of Lewis the Sixteenth. Extensive ruins in the vicinity induce us to believe that Saint Claude was a place of some celebrity in the time of the Romans; it was called Saint Oyant after one of its abbots, at a later period it took the name which it bears at present, but which was changed during the revolution for Condat-Montague. It was completely destroyed by fire in the year 1799, but the sum of 750,000 franks, granted by the consular government, and subscriptions collected in every part of France, enabled the inhabitants to rebuild it according to an improved and more regular plan. It is situated in a low sequestered valley, bounded on one side by mountains covered with

forests, and on the other by arid heights. There are twelve works, in which five hundred persons are employed: it exports clocks and watches, musical instruments, nails, pins, snuff-boxes, chaplets and toys. It possesses an hospital, a large college and other useful institutions.

Department of Doubs.

The heights that cover part of Jura, extend into Doubs, which, like the last department, may be divided into three regions; the high, the middle and the low. Lofty calcareous rocks are situated in the first, their summits are covered with snow during seven or eight months in the year, and they are for the most part destitute of vegetation; but on the southern declivities, there are excellent pastures and fine vallies shaded with forests of fir. The houses are scattered at great distances from each other; the inhabitants are hospitable, they have preserved that simplicity of manners which distinguishes the people in mountainous countries. The second or middle region is under the influence of a milder temperature; wheat is cultivated, and the vine grows on some of the heights. But the most extensive hills are covered with forests of oak or beech, which are in some places mixed with fir, a tree that disappears in the lower part of the country. The low region stretches along the base of the mountains, and commences at the height of a thousand feet below their summits. No other part of Doubs is so populous, none so wealthy, none so fruitful in corn and wine. Several high plains in the two other regions are covered with marshes which seem to be the natural reservoirs of the principal rivers that rise in the department. The Doubs bounds France and Switzerland, but falls first from a precipice eighty feet in height, into an abyss that has never been fathomed; the other rivers are the Loue, which puts in motion several mills at no great distance from its source, the Dessoubre, famed for its trouts, and the Lison, which forms a cascade near a fruitful valley, and escapes through crevices in the rocks into a different part of the country. Lakes and large marshes, subterranean labyrinths, grottos in the form of glaciers, coal mines and mineral springs are situated at the base of the mountains.

Pontarlier.

Pontarlier rises on the Doubs at a short distance from a

BOOK CXLV.

pass across Jura, between France and Switzerland; as the same pass was known to the ancients, and defended by a fort on Mount Joux, probably *Mons Jovis*, it may be readily believed that the town is a place of great antiquity. D'Anville supposes it the ancient *Ariolica*, which is mentioned in the itinerary of Antonine; but Dortz, the erudite historian of Franche-Comté, has shown that the opinion of the celebrated geographer is at best doubtful. In the most ancient documents, it bears the name of *Pontalia* and *Pons-Ælii*. The streets are regular, and the houses are well-built; if the population has doubled within the last forty years, it may be ascribed to the industry of the inhabitants and to the trade they carry on with Switzerland. It exports annually a great quantity of wormwood wine, it possesses steel and copper foundries, iron works and five tan yards. General d'Arson, the person by whose advice floating batteries were employed at the siege of Gibraltar, was a native of Pontarlier. There are nineteen works or manufactories in the district of which it is the capital; the most important are three of cotton, two of paper, and one of glass.

Besancon.

The district of Besancon is twice as populous as the last, and, in proportion to its size, still more industrious. The city is the ancient *Vesuntio*, which Cæsar chose as a place of arms during his expedition against Ariovistus; it may therefore be reasonably inferred that it was no inconsiderable town at the time the conqueror of Gaul entered the country. Although devasted by the Burgundians in the fifth century, and by the Hungarians in the tenth, it retained its importance; Charlemagne ranked it among his principal strong-holds; it became under the dukes of Burgundy, the seat of their courts of justice, and it was raised in the twelfth century into an imperial city by the emperor Frederick, a dignity which it preserved until Franche-Comté was united to France. The Doubs divides it into two unequal parts, and almost encompasses the larger or the high town, winding at the base of the walls, or according to the expression of Cæsar, forming a curve not unlike a horse's shoe. A citadel erected on a steep rock commands the town and the neighbourhood. The rock is the ancient

Mons Coelius, and the two quarters communicate by means of a stone bridge, of which the foundations were laid by the Romans. The *Chamars*, the most agreeable walk in the town, occupies the site of the *Campus-Martius*. The *Black Gate*, a triumphal arch that was raised in honour of Crispus Cæsar, the son of Constantine, is perhaps the finest ancient monument in Besancon. Within the walls are the remains of an aqueduct, and beyond them the ruins of an amphitheatre; in short, eighteen centuries have elapsed, but Besancon retains its primitive form; it may be compared to an ancient in a modern dress, it is one of the best built towns in France. The public library and scientific collections are very valuable, the former consists of fifty thousand volumes. The products of the manufactories are sent into most parts of the kingdom, one branch of industry, the making of clocks and watches, affords employment to eighteen hundred workmen; and the number is likely to be much increased as soon as the town communicates with the canal of Monsieur. It is enough to mention the names of Suard and Moncey, townsmen of Besancon, to show that it has contributed to the literary and military glory of France. Ornans, a small place in the neighbourhood, is peopled by three thousand inhabitants; it contains extensive tan works, two paper mills and other manufactories; it was the birthplace of the Abbé Millot.

Hills forming a group, rise on the right bank of the Doubs; they are about seven leagues distant from Besancon; the nearest is crowned by the ruins of what was formerly the most important fortress in Franche-Comté, and the small town of Beaume-les-Dames stands at the base. The town is supposed to be very ancient, it derives its surname from an abbey of canonesses, in which there were not fewer than five nobles among the officers or attendants of the abbess.* The columns that supported formerly the principal altar in the church were removed to Saint-Genevieve in Paris. It is at present the capital of a subprefecture; Leclerc, the author of the his-

* See the Annuaire Statistique et Historique du departement du Doubs, by M. Laurens.

BOOK CXLV.

tory of Russia, was a native of Beaume-les-Dames. The small town of Saint Hippolyte is situated at the confluence of the Doubs and the Dessoubre, near the extremity of a valley enclosed by hills planted with vineyards, and by mountains covered with forests. The holy swaddling clothes, which the faithful in Turin kiss and adore, were formerly preserved with superstitious care in an old chapel at Saint Hippolyte. The neighbouring valley may be mentioned on account of numerous iron works, from which clouds of smoke rise day and night.

Saint-Hippolyte.

Montbelliard.

We may leave the country watered by the Doubs for the district of Montbelliard, the ancient capital of a principality. The houses are well-built, and the streets are adorned with fountains; it is commanded by a castle, that was formerly the residence of the princes, it now serves the double purpose of a barrack and prison. The markets and the church of Saint Martin, in which a roof eighty feet long by fifty broad, is supported without pillars, are the only public buildings of any consequence. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade, which consists in watches, fine cottons and leather; these products of industry represent an annual value of L.50,000.

Department of Upper Rhine.

Some branches of Jura and the Vosges enclose the mountainous part of Upper Rhine on the south and the east; the western part bounded by the river, watered by the Ill, the Birse, other small rivers and the canal of Monsieur, forms a long plain; in both regions there are forests, vineyards and fruitful fields. The number of horses and horned cattle corresponds with the richness of the country; but in some places more sheep might be reared, in others the quantity of oats and wheat is insufficient for the local consumption. The wealth of the department may therefore be attributed to the works of which the materials are supplied by copper, iron and lead mines, to forests and coal, and lastly to woollen and cotton stuffs.

Béfort.

A rock near the base of the Vosges is crowned by an old castle that has been called Bel-Fort on account of its position; a small town of the same name which from usage is pronounced and written Béfort, rises at the foot of the

rock; it was fortified by Vauban. The streets are broad and straight, the barracks are large and well built; the Savoureuse, which waters the walls, turns a great many mills. A large cotton manufactory has been erected at Massevaux or Mamunster, a town of three thousand inhabitants. Cernay contains a population of five thousand individuals, who are employed in cotton works, print-fields and foundries.

The population and industry of Altkirch are insignificant; it need only be mentioned as the chief town in a district. Huningue was a well built town in the year 1814, it was fortified by Vauban, it contained seven thousand seven hundred inhabitants; the number at present does not amount to nine hundred. It was ruined by the invasion in 1815, a disastrous period in the history of France, but one that has been signalized by heroic and glorious achievements. Blockaded by twenty-five thousand Austrians, defended by a hundred and forty men under the command of general Barbanegre; it was not until the defenders had lost half their number that the town capitulated with all the honours of war. The small number of the defenders excited the surprise of the victor, not more than seventy soldiers passed before him, and of these thirty were wounded; no time, however, was lost in demolishing the fortifications, and as the tomb of general Abbatucci, an admirable work of art, was designedly destroyed, it seemed as if the Austrian wished to punish the dead for the noble resistance of the living.

Huningue.

Mulhausen or Mulhouse is one of the most commercial towns in Upper Rhine; it possessed in the beginning of the year 1828, thirteen woollen and cotton manufactories, eleven of cloth, seventeen of muslin, seventeen of printed calico, several leather works and foundries. It contains fifteen thousand inhabitants, exclusively of six or seven thousand workmen who are employed in the town, but who reside beyond the walls. It is situated on an island formed by the Ill and the canal of Neuf-Brisach. The streets are for the most part regular, there are several public buildings, but the finest are the townhouse and the reformed church.

Mulhausen.

BOOK CXLV.

Seven or eight small towns, worthy of notice from the industry of their inhabitants, are situated in the district of Colmar. Kayserberg is well built, and encompassed with walls, it was formerly an imperial city. Ribauviller is adorned with an old castle, and Munster carries on a considerable trade in printed calico and in kirchenwasser. Rouffach and Soultz may each of them contain four or five thousand inhabitants. Guebwiller may be mentioned on account of its sugar-works and cotton manufactory; it supplies different places with nails and hardwares. Neuf-Brisach forms a regular octagon, it was built by Lewis the Fourteenth, and fortified by Vauban. Saint-Marie-aux-Mines is encompassed by metallic strata, of which one only is worked. Some writers affirm that *Argentaria*, a Celtic city mentioned by Ptolemy, was situated near Colmar, but no traces of it can be found either in the town or in the neighbourhood. Colmar, it is known, was a mere hamlet during the reign of Charlemagne; the emperor Frederick the Second surrounded it with walls in 1220, but it was not raised into an imperial city before the year 1552. The population was never greater than at present, but it is long since the town was considered one of the wealthiest places in Alsace; the revenue amounted forty years ago to 100,000 franks, it is now more than double. The court of justice may be the finest modern edifice, but it is inferior to an old building — the church of the Dominicans. Few provincial towns in France possess so valuable a library, it consists of more than sixty thousand volumes. Martin Schoen, the earliest engraver on metal, and Rewbel, a member of the Directory, were born in Colmar.

Neuf-Brisach.

Colmar.

Department of Lower Rhine.

Schelestat, the first town beyond the territory of Colmar, is situated on the banks of the Ill. The Vosges which rise on the left, the ruins of ancient castles on different heights, the vineyards that command many rich villages, the forests on the right, and the fruitful meadows on the left bank of the river, form a romantic landscape. The town, at present the metropolis of a subprefecture, was formerly one of the ten imperial cities in Alsace, and the third in point of importance. The antiquity of Schelestat cannot

be denied, long the principal city of the *Tribocci*, it bore in ancient times the name of *Elcebus*, but although antiquaries assert the contrary, it may be doubted that the neighbouring village of Ell was so called from the ancient name of the town. It was no mean place under the Carlovingians; Charlemagne and his court celebrated the festival of Christmas at Schelestat in the year 776, and Charles the Gros chose it frequently for his residence. The decline of the town dates from the tenth century, it rose again into importance in the course of the thirteenth, but it suffered much during the thirty years' war, and from that period until Alsace was united to France; since the union it has continued to flourish, the population has been more than doubled. Martin Bucer, one of the ablest theologians in the cause of the reformation, was born in Schelestat; it was at the same place that the present method of varnishing porcelain was invented. The other towns in the district of which it is the capital, may be shortly mentioned: Barr contains four thousand five hundred persons, it stands in a valley surrounded by vineyards; Obernay, equal to it in the number of its inhabitants, is situated at the base of Mount Holenburg, and surmounted by the majestic ruins of the famous monastery of Saint-Odile; Roshein, a town of three thousand seven hundred persons, consists of a single street, it was formerly a free and imperial city. The village of Klingenthal may be mentioned with these towns on account of the industry of its inhabitants, and also on account of a royal armory, in which swords are made that rival any in Syria.

Strasburg.

Mutzig and Molsheim, two small towns, may each contain three thousand individuals; the first is known for its fire-arms, and the second for its excellent blades and steel; but we may leave these places on the left, and proceed towards Strasburg. The lofty but light steeple of the cathedral is seen from a great distance; it rises to the height of four hundred and thirty-six feet, consequently it is higher than any edifice in Europe, indeed it is only thirteen feet lower than the great pyramid in Egypt. The cathedral may be considered a model of Gothic architecture; the clock that decorates the interior, is perhaps the most com-

BOOK CXLV.

plicated piece of machinery in France, it represents the motions of the constellations, and the planetary system. Seven gates lead to Strasburg; it is surrounded with fortifications, and defended by a citadel, which was built according to the plans of Vauban. It is watered by the Ill, most of the bridges are built of wood. The royal castle, at present the residence of the bishop, is the finest edifice after the cathedral. The court of justice, the town house, the prefect's palace and the new theatre are in every way worthy of an important town. The church of St Thomas was built in the seventh century; several mausoleums adorn the interior, the most remarkable is that of the marshal de Saxe, the work of Pigal. The arsenal, a large building, the barracks and the cannon foundry are of a description that corresponds with a fortified town of the first class.

Edifices.

Places of instruction.

The protestant academy is one of the best in France; as a place of instruction it may rival the most celebrated in Germany; it possesses a good collection of philosophical instruments, a museum of comparative anatomy, in which all the articles are arranged according to the most approved methods, a chemical laboratory and a valuable collection of natural history. Each faculty has a separate library, but there are besides two others, the one belonging to the observatory, and another open to the public, consisting of 55,000 volumes; in the last are preserved the sword of Kleber, and the stilletto of his assassin.

Celebrated men.

If it be recollected that the arts, sciences and letters have been long cultivated at Strasburg, it need not excite surprise that it has produced many eminent men. Kleber and Kellermann distinguished themselves in the military art, Ramond in physics, Weyler and Manlich in painting. If we do not enter into any details concerning the scientific and literary societies at Strasburg, it must not be imagined that they are unworthy of notice, or that the members who compose them are at all deficient in zeal or knowledge. The manner in which the charitable institutions are managed, is most creditable to their directors; the prison discipline that was adopted eight years ago, ought to have been imitated throughout France; if to effect the moral

improvement of the prisoners be the great object of prison discipline, that object has been attained at Strasburg.

Neighbourhood.

The island of Robertsau is the place of greatest resort in the neighbourhood, it rises on the south-east of the town, it is encompassed by the Ill and the Rhine. A neat village, several country houses and different works are situated on the island; but the agreeable is also united with the profitable, there are many fine gardens and walks shaded with trees.

An obelisk to the memory of Kleber has been erected on a piece of ground near the town, at present a place for the exercise of artillery. The obelisk of Desaix rises behind the citadel, on an island opposite the village of Kehl.

Antiquity.

Although the origin of Strasburg may be very uncertain, still the name of *Argentoratum*, by which Ptolemy designates it, and which is derived from a Celtic root, proves that it was anterior to the Roman conquest. Drusus enlarged it and made it an important fortress; much about the same time, the arms and armour made at Strasburg were highly valued. When Julian defeated the Germans under the walls, and took their king Chrodomaire prisoner, it was much frequented as a station between Gaul and Germany; thus it was called *Strata-Burgus* in the fifth century, hence the origin of its present name.

Peasantry. Dress.

The inhabitants of provincial towns follow the fashions of the capital; it is not therefore in such places that one can judge of a national costume. The peasants in the villages between Strasburg and Haguenau go to mass or to the reformed church in their best dresses. A square black coat is purposely left open to show a red waistcoat with gilt buttons; loose boots made of soft leather, or long gaiters are attached to black rateen breeches; a broad hat completes the costume. The dress of the women has been thought more graceful; it is certainly more showy; the hat does not conceal floating ringlets or ribbons of various colours, but the latter are only worn by the young, never by married women. Long gilt pins serve to fasten the hair, they rise in the form of a coronet; a black silk handkerchief covers the breast; the bodice is adorned with many ornaments, broad sleeves of white linen

BOOK CXLV.

descend to the wrist, the petticoat is made of green serge, and bordered with red ribbons.

Haguenau.

Haguenau contains several manufactories, and a population of seven thousand five hundred individuals; it was founded by Frederick Barbarossa, and afterwards included in the number of imperial cities in Alsace. The sandy lands in the neighbourhood are very fruitful in madder, of which more than 2,000,000 kilogrammes are annually sent to different parts of France and England.

Saverne.

The small town of Saverne is situated near the base of the Vosges, at the extremity of the chain; it is well built, and the heights round it are planted with vineyards. The hill that bears its name, rises on the west, while on the south-west are seen the ruins of Haut-Barr, a castle founded in the thirteenth century. Bouxviller is commanded by a fine Gothic castle, and surrounded with agreeable walks; it contains about three thousand five hundred inhabitants, it is situated, like the last, at the base of the mountains.

Two or three places may be mentioned in the most northern district of Lower Rhine, which borders with Rhenish Bavaria. Soultz-sous-Forets, a town of two thousand inhabitants, carries on a trade in the best wines that are produced in the department; coal mines and a saline spring, that yields a great quantity of salt, are worked in the neighbourhood. Seltz does not contain a greater population than Soultz-sous-Forets, if it be better known, it may be attributed to the gaseous and mineral water, of which more than thirty thousand casks are annually consumed in Paris. Weissembourg or Wissembourg, a town on the Lauter, derives the importance which it possesses, from its position on the northern frontier. The fortifications have been celebrated in the annals of war from the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth to the year 1815. The inhabitants carry on a trade in linen, porcelain and leather; the population has quadrupled since the time that Alsace was united to France.

BOOK CXLVI.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. — Kingdom of France. Fifth Section. Northern Region.

THE twenty-one departments in the northern region are formed by the ancient provinces of Lorraine, Champagne, Ile-de France, Normandy, Picardy, Flanders and Artois. Education is more general, and wealth is more diffused than in the rest of the kingdom; the population relatively to the surface is also greater, for the mean number of inhabitants to every square league is nearly equal to one thousand six hundred and forty. It surpasses the other regions in the extent of the forests, in the number of horses and oxen, in the industry of the inhabitants, and in the amount of the revenue.

Department of Moselle.

The department of Moselle is contiguous on the north to the possessions of Bavaria, Prussia and the Netherlands. The length from east to west is equal to thirty-nine leagues, or to three times the greatest breadth from north to south. The land, although uneven and well wooded, yields twice as much corn as the inhabitants consume. The country is well supplied with horses, and if more attention were paid to the breed, they might be very valuable for the light cavalry. Oxen are sufficiently numerous, but the rearing of sheep has been much neglected. The abundance of timber enables the inhabitants to carry on many works or manufactories in which fuel is required, and to derive a considerable profit from their iron mines. The prosperity of the country may be attributed to the extent of the roads and

BOOK CXLVI.

navigable rivers, and to the aptitude for labour by which the lower orders (manufacturers as well as husbandmen) are distinguished. Agriculture is in a more advanced state than in the rest of France; the peasant, as indefatigable in labour as he is brave in war, adopts willingly every improvement, raises a great variety of products, and multiplies different kinds of fruit; the vineyards which he cultivates, particularly those on the left bank of the Moselle, do not yield much wine of a good quality, but it should be recollected that the exportation of wine is not encouraged, and the petty proprietors do not think it worth while to substitute the best stems of Burgundy for the large vines of Lorraine.

Bitche.

Bitche is situated below the western declivities of the Vosges, it contains two thousand seven hundred inhabitants; it may be considered a stronghold of the fourth class, it is defended by an impregnable fortress on the summit of a rock, the Prussians attempted in vain to take it in the year 1792. Sarralbe derives its name from its situation at the confluence of the Albe and the Sarre; the number of inhabitants amounts to three thousand three hundred; the salt works in the neighbourhood yield annually a thousand tons of salt. Sarreguemines, of which the ancient German name or *Gemunde* signifies an embouchure, is situated above the last place, at the junction of the Sarre and the Blise. The population has increased two-thirds since the year 1790. The red porcelain made in the town, and generally used in the department, and the snuff-boxes made in the neighbourhood are the principal articles of trade; the yearly sale of the latter is supposed to produce a sum almost equal to L.42,000. The houses are well built, a broad street extends along the whole length of the town, it terminates at the bridge, on the Sarre. The road that communicates with the same bridge, leads to Forbach, a burgh of three thousand inhabitants; it was there Charles the Fifth encamped in 1552, and determined to risk his military glory before the ramparts of Metz.

Sarreguemines.

Bouzonville is the most important place in the country between Forbach and Thionville; the last town was founded in the eighth century; as a stronghold, it belongs to the third

Thionville.

class, part of the ramparts were raised by the Spaniards, it was taken by Condé after the battle of Rocroy. The riding-school is perhaps the finest building, but there are few edifices of any consequence; the wooden bridge, more remarkable for its clumsy shape than any thing else, is mentioned as a wonder both by ancient and modern geographers,—it can certainly be quickly taken to pieces in a case of emergency. The population of the town, now the capital of a district, is ten times greater than when it was united to France after the treaty of 1659. The village of Cattenom is situated about two leagues below Thionville, on the left bank of the Moselle; it is the place where the greatest cattle fair in the department is annually held. Sierck on the banks of the same river, may be about two leagues and a-half distant from the village; it stands at the base of a rock, a strong castle rises on the summit. It carries on a trade in different manufactures; the stones which are obtained from a neighbouring quarry, are used in paving the streets of Metz and Nanci.

Sierck.

Longwy, situated on the west of Sierck, not more than half a league from the frontier, does not contain three thousand inhabitants, but it is divided into the high and low town. The first stands on a rock, it was fortified by Vauban; the second occupies the site of an ancient fortress, where many Roman medals have been at different times discovered. There is reason to believe that the same place was the station of a Roman camp, bore the name of *Longus Vicus* during the middle ages. Brie, the capital of the district, is a very insignificant town, consisting of steep streets on the declivity of a hill which rises above a fruitful and well wooded valley, watered by the Voigot, a small river.

Longwy.

The most frequented road to the ancient capital of Lorraine, is not considered the best approach; to judge favourably of it, one must descend from the neighbouring heights to the village of Rozerieulles, which is concealed in a narrow valley, and surrounded by orchards and vineyards. The Moselle winds below the village, waters fruitful meadows, and divides itself into several branches which give perhaps a more imposing appear-

Metz.

BOOK CXLVI.

ance to the formidable fortifications of Metz. The court of justice, a white building, seen to most advantage from a distance, forms a quadrangular mass near the lofty trees on the glacis, the finest walk in the town. The blackness of the cathedral contrasts well with the general colour of the houses, it may be admired also on account of a light and bold steeple, not less than a hundred and forty-five feet above the ground, and surrounded with others of a smaller size. The heavy modern portal is not in harmony with the graceful Gothic architecture of the building; the nave exceeds 363 feet in length and 73 in breadth. When the *Mutte* or great bell is rung, all the steeples are perceptibly shaken.

Antiquities.

Ars-sur-Moselle is situated near the village of Longeville, at the place where the waters of the Moselle are confined by a dike, and form a cascade; it contains two paper mills, a velvet and cloth manufactory. The name derived from the Latin word *Arx*, indicates the site of a Roman fortress. The remains of an aqueduct may be observed in the neighbourhood; pillars are seen in the vineyards and on the river, they extend along the right bank to the village of Jouy, and support the majestic arcades that the country people call the *Devil's Bridge*. The aqueduct, it is supposed, was the work of Drusus, it supplied the baths and naumachia of *Divodurum*, the city of the *Mediomatrici*, which in the time of the Roman empire was called Metis, and afterwards corrupted into Metz. An ancient bath of red porphyry, an admirable work of art, and much larger than any in the Louvre, is preserved in the cathedral, where it is used as a baptismal font.* Roman tombs have been discovered at different periods near the site of the former citadel, particularly at the time when the building was pulled down in order that the public walk might be enlarged and completed. Ruins attest the past splendour of Metz, but the ancient edifices have been destroyed by time and barbarians; it might be difficult to recognise the place from the pompous panegyric of Ausonius, which has been engraved below the peristyle of the townhouse.

* It is ten feet long, four broad, and three and a-half in depth.

Metz in the middle ages.

Metz was the capital of Austrasia, a country of which Thierry was the first king. Lewis the Debonnaire died there in the year 840, and the body of that unfortunate prince was deposited within the church of Saint Arnoult, then in the suburbs, now in the town. It became a free and imperial city during the reign of Otho the Second; it reached the height of its prosperity about the end of the fourteenth century. It maintained long wars against different sovereigns; it is not less certain that several princes solicited the honour of being enrolled among the number of its citizens. It was added to the dominions of Henry the Second by the intrigues and address of the constable Montmorency. The Duke of Guise compelled Charles the Fifth to retire from its walls, who attacked them with an army of more than a hundred thousand men. Although very populous in proportion to its size, it is much less so than when it was independent.*

Interior Institutions.

The improvements made in the city, the number of broad streets that have been built in modern times, the quarter of Saint Thiebaud, the large barracks, the military hospitals, the royal college, Saint Vincent's church, of which the portal is adorned with a triple range of columns, the new market, the theatre and five spacious squares render Metz worthy of being ranked among the best built towns in France. The public library consists of thirty-six thousand volumes; the places connected with education are a school of artillery and fortification, an academy of commerce and drawing, schools of arithmetic and geometry in its application to the arts, and lastly, an institution where lectures are delivered on natural philosophy and chemistry. Much certainly has been done for the intellectual improvement of the

	Inhabitants.
* It contained in the year 71 of the vulgar era	80,000
About the end of the fourteenth century	60,000
In the year 1698	22,000
In 1741	30,000
In 1800	32,000
In 1802	34,000
In 1814	41,000
In 1827	45,000

BOOK CXLVI.

inhabitants since the time of Voltaire; but the philosopher condemned Metz, because when he happened to pass through it, he saw only one bookseller's shop, and read the signs of several confectioners and pastry-cooks. Among the charitable institutions are an orphan-hospital and a gratuitous school for the Jews. The citizens refused a passage to the allied forces when they left the French territory, and the troops had to cross the Moselle on a bridge which was built for the purpose below the ramparts. A foreign flag had never been seen within the walls in time of war, — such a spectacle was thought disgraceful in time of peace.

Department of Meuse.

The country through which the Meuse flows from south-east to north-west, is intersected in the same direction by fruitful vallies and lofty ridges, where the air is cold but wholesome. The lands are well wooded, they yield plenty of grain, and the neighbourhood of Bar is famous for its wine; the inhabitants rear many horses, the number of other domestic animals might be increased with advantage.

Etain.

Leaving the ancient province of Lorraine, we may cross the heights that rise above the right bank of the Meuse, and arrive at Etain, the first town in the department; it contains three thousand inhabitants; it is well built, but ill situated in a marshy plain on the banks of the Ornes, a river abounding with fish.

Verdun.

The ramparts of Verdun are seen at no great distance from Etain. Iron and glass-works, paper-mills and manufactories are situated in the neighbourhood: the town rises on both banks of the Meuse; the houses are well enough built, but the streets which descend rapidly towards the river, are paved with sharp stones, as inconvenient for foot passengers as for carriages. The horse barracks and the ancient episcopal palace are the finest buildings, indeed there are no others of any consequence in the place. Verdun is mentioned in the itinerary of Antonine under the name of *Virodunum*. A road along the banks of the Meuse leads to Stenay, a town of three thousand inhabitants, formerly a stronghold, it still possesses very large bar-

racks. Montmedy, although ill-peopled and worse built, is more important as a fortified town and as the metropolis of a district. If the inhabitants are poor, it may be attributed to the want of commerce and industry.

Bar.

Bar, one of the three cities of the same name in France, and the chief town in the department, is watered by the Ornain. It was formerly called Bar-le-Duc, because it was the capital of a dutchy which made up the small country of Barrois. The town was founded in the tenth century by Frederick, duke of Mossellabe, the brother in-law of Hugh Capet. It is supposed that on an average fifty thousand kilogrammes of cotton are annually manufactured at Bar;* that branch of industry, the numerous iron works, the conveyance of the timber which is obtained from the neighbouring forests, and the transport of wines, account for the activity that prevails in the harbour. The Ornain waters Ligny, a small but neat town four leagues above Bar.

Saint Mihiel.

The other places that remain to be described in the department, are situated in the fruitful valley of the Meuse. Saint Mihiel, a town of five thousand inhabitants, was formerly fortified, but the danger to which Lewis the Thirteenth was exposed when he besieged it, induced him to raze the fortifications. It is pleasantly situated, the river passes below well wooded banks, cultivated fields and hills covered with vineyards. A monument, that judges are likely to appreciate, may be seen within the modest cemetery of the parish church; it is a sepulchre made from a single block of granulated limestone, white as marble; thirteen figures indicate the hand of a master from the simple way in which they are grouped, as well as by their finished workmanship; they are attributed to Legier-Michier, a pupil of Michael Angelo. Commercy, a neat town on the same river, encompassed by a forest through which a road has been made, is situated at the distance of four leagues above Saint Mihiel. The Meuse leads also to Vaucouleurs, which derives its name from verdant meads

* The kilogramme is equal to 2 lb. 5 oz. 3 dr. Avoirdupois.

BOOK CXLVI.

and vallies enamelled with wild flowers. The town contains two thousand souls, it is built in the form of an amphitheatre; a small canal supplied by the Meuse and the fountain of Vaise, serves to augment the trade of the inhabitants, which consists chiefly in leather and cotton stuffs. It was the birthplace of the Abbé L'Advocat, who published a geographical dictionary under the feigned name of Vosgien.

Department of Vosges. Domremy.

It is necessary to ascend the Meuse the distance of four leagues, to visit the village where the heroine of the fifteenth century was born. Domremy-la-Pucelle rises in a valley embellished by the windings of the river. These verdant meadows, these hills covered with pastures were the places where the young Joan of Arc tended her flocks; her days were spent in solitude and in peace until she left her rural labours, and led the French to victory after they had been disheartened by defeat. The house in which she was born, stands near the church; it may be easily discovered by a Gothic door that supports three scutcheons and a statue, in which she is represented in full armour. In the year 1818, a Prussian count wished to purchase the statue from the proprietor of this ancient abode, on his refusal to part with it, he was offered six thousand franks for the house; but the Frenchman unwilling to sell it to a foreigner, gave it to the department for a third part of the sum. The house of Joan d'Arc has thus become national property, and the former owner was decorated with the cross of the Legion of Honour, as a reward for his patriotism. Lewis the Eighteenth granted the village twelve thousand franks to erect a monument to the memory of Joan, and eight thousand to found a school of mutual instruction, in which the young girls in Domremy and the neighbouring hamlets are gratuitously educated. The house, which had almost fallen into decay, was lately rebuilt, but the original plan has not been altered; a fine painting, the gift of the king, decorates the principal room. The market place is surrounded with poplar trees, and watered by a fountain, of which the quadrangular base supports four pilasters crowned with an entablature and a double pediment, beneath them is placed a

statue of the Maid, which was also the gift of royalty. The inscription on this monument, *To the memory of Joan d'Arc*, may recal the simple habits of the person it is intended to commemorate.*

The burgh of Grand, about three leagues on the west of Domremy, stands on the site of an ancient city, and at no great distance from it are the remains of a large amphitheatre; the inhabitants carry on a trade in hard-wares. The neat town of Neuf-Chateau, the capital of a subprefecture, is situated in the midst of high hills at the confluence of the Mouzon and the Meuse. Mirecourt, also a chief town, is watered by the Modon, it bore the name of *Mercurii Curtis* in the middle ages; it does not possess, however, any marks of antiquity. It is ill-built, but the neighbouring country is fruitful and well cultivated; the trade of the inhabitants consists chiefly in lace. Contrexeville, a small village encompassed by the waters of the Vair, which divides itself into two branches, is famed on account of a medicinal spring to which many persons afflicted with oppilations resort; more than four thousand bottles of the water are annually sent to Paris.

Ramberviller or Rambervillers carries on a great trade in hops; the inhabitants are wealthy and industrious, their number amounts to more than five thousand; there is a public library in the town, consisting of more than ten thousand volumes. It is the last place of any consequence that can be mentioned in the lower part of Vosges. The lofty region is formed by a series of rounded summits with gentle declivities, very different in appearance from the heights that extend on the side of Alsace. There are no old castles associated with different epochs of the middle ages, but scenery constantly varied, and landscapes not unlike those in Switzerland, although in a much smaller scale. The mountains abound in iron, copper and lead; these metals are a source of wealth to the inhabitants; and numerous works are set in motion by the streams which descend from almost all the heights.

Appearance and riches of the Vosges.

* See the work entitled: Forces productives et commerciales de la France by M. le Baron Charles Dupin, tome i, page 202.

BOOK CXLVI.

Thus, although the products are different, the two regions are equally favoured by nature; the plains and low vallies yield as much corn as the inhabitants require, and a surplus quantity of oats equal to 1,800,000 bushels; it might be inferred from so great an excess that there were not many horses in the country; the contrary, however, is the fact, for in proportion to the surface, it contains twice as many as the mean number in other departments. The same remark may be applied to the number of oxen, but little attention is bestowed on the breeding of sheep: it appears, indeed, that there is not a tenth part of the average quantity in the country.

Epinal.

Epinal is situated at the base of the Vosges, and watered by the Moselle, which divides it into two equal parts; walks shaded by trees extend on both banks of the river, the town was formerly fortified, but the ruins of an old castle are all that remain of the ramparts. Although ill peopled, it contains different places of education, a collection of antiquities, and a library of more than seventeen thousand volumes.

Remiremont.

The small town of Remiremont rises above Epinal on the left bank of the Moselle; it stood on the opposite bank about the beginning of the tenth century, but the position was changed on account of the devastations that were committed by Hungarian invaders. The name of Remiremont is derived from a mountain above the ancient site, on which count Romaric built the castle of *Romarimont*. The same powerful and rich lord, despising the vanities of this world, founded two convents in the year 620, the one for men and the other for women, to these he bequeathed all his wealth; his liberality was rewarded with the title of saint. One of these convents, the abbey of lady canonesses, as it was afterwards called, became in time very celebrated. The inmates were not required to take an oath, they enjoyed many privileges; the abbess was entitled a princess of the Holy Empire; on occasions of ceremony she was preceded by a seneschal, who held her crosier, and followed by a lady of honour, who carried her mantle. It was customary for the same person to review the burgesses, and to present them with colours; other prerogatives which

are only conferred on sovereigns, were attached to the office. Plombières, a small place in the neighbourhood, is indebted to king Stanislas for an hospital and a large church. The village of Bussang near the sources of the Moselle, is well known for its cold mineral water, of which more than two hundred thousand bottles are sent into different parts of France. The finest cataract in Vosges is situated at an equal distance from Epinal and Remiremont, near the village of Tendon; it falls from the height of a hundred and twenty-five feet.

Saint-Die.

The small town of Saint-Die or Saint-Diey, the capital of a subprefecture, and the seat of a diocess that was erected about fifty years ago, possesses little or nothing of any consequence; it is regularly built and encompassed with walls on the banks of the Meurthe. The best cheeses in Vosges are made in the neighbourhood, but the greatest number are exported from Gerardmer or Geromé, a burgh of five thousand inhabitants, situated in a very romantic part of the country; *Lac-Blanc* and *Lac-Noir*, the lakes of Longemer and Retournemer may be seen in the vicinity, but the Gerardmer, the largest of any, covers a surface of nearly a hundred acres, and gives birth to the Valogne, a feeder of the Moselle.

Department of Meurthe.

The department of Meurthe resembles that of Vosges; mountains not different in their component parts, although less elevated, extend from south to north on the western and eastern frontiers. As to the products, the two departments differ essentially from each other; like Vosges, Meurthe produces more grain than it consumes, the vineyards are more abundant, and the forests more extensive; there are fewer oxen, but a comparatively greater number of horses and sheep.

Cirey.

Three places of some importance from their industry, the last in the chain of Vosges, may be shortly mentioned. Cirey is situated on the right bank of the Vezouse; it carries on a considerable trade in glass and crystal, which the inhabitants manufacture; the second or Saint-Quirin possesses works of the same sort, and under the management of the same company; the third or Phalsburg, a strong town, rises on a height, contains about three thousand

BOOK CXLVI.

inhabitants, and exports a great quantity of liqueurs and essences. All the three are situated in the district of Sarrebourg, an ancient city, the *Pons Sarravi* of the Romans, so called from its position on the banks of the Sarre. The inhabitants carry on a trade in plaster ornaments and in cases for small clocks, which, although made of the same substance, might be readily mistaken for gilt bronze.

It is not improbable that the Seille derives its name from the saline lands it waters; leaving the marsh of Indre, it passes through Dieuze, a town of four thousand souls, important chiefly on account of springs from which salt has been extracted during eight hundred years. It must have been more considerable in ancient times, for it was the *Decem-Pagi* of the Romans. Some remains of antiquity have been discovered at Marsal, a stronghold in an unhealthy and marshy situation. Salt springs are worked near Moyenvic, which was dismantled by Lewis the Fourteenth. Vic contains twice as many inhabitants, and possesses a very valuable mine of rock salt. Chateau Salins, at some leagues on the north of Vic, is pleasantly situated on the banks of the Little-Seille; a small spring rises in the vicinity.

Dieuze.

Invalids repair to the mineral fountain of Lombrigny, near the small town of Blamont on the Vezouse, where the former princes of Salm-Salm used to reside. Badonvillers is watered by the Blette, it supplies different parts of France with awls and puncheons that are little inferior to the best in Germany. Baccarat stands on the banks of the Meurthe, at the base of a lofty and steep hill near a large forest; it may be mentioned among the industrious towns of France, for it possesses glass and crystal works, in which more than three thousand persons are employed.

The Vezouse traverses a fruitful plain, and waters Luneville, a place of some celebrity from the treaty concluded between France and Austria in 1801. It was a small stronghold about the middle of the seventeenth century; it was afterwards improved and embellished by duke Leopold. The castle, which served as a residence to the dukes of Lorraine and to king Stanislas, has been converted into

Luneville.

barracks for cavalry. The new infantry barracks may serve as a model for other buildings of the same sort; the architecture is simple, the interior is commodious and well aired, indeed nothing has been omitted which can contribute to the health of the inmates. The riding school, one of the largest in France, is three hundred feet long by eighty broad. A fountain, in which the water issues from eight different outlets, adorned the principal square; as it is still mentioned in the most recent geographical dictionaries, itineraries and descriptions of France, it does not appear to be generally known that it was destroyed in the year 1796. Luneville was the birthplace of Boufflers, Monvel and the eloquent Girardin.

Road from Luneville to Nancy.

The road from Luneville to Nancy extends along the forest of Vitrimont, which bounds the right bank of the Meurthe; Rosiere-aux-Salines rises on the opposite bank, the inhabitants employed themselves formerly in extracting salt from neighbouring springs; at present, however, they are no longer worked. The river begins to be navigable at Saint Nicolas-du-Port, a small town of three thousand inhabitants, in which the only remarkable building is an old Gothic church.

Nancy.

Nancy consists of broad, straight, and almost deserted streets; in the number of public buildings it surpasses most towns of the same size; the Royal Place forms the principal square, the others are large and regular, many of them are adorned with fountains. The prefect's palace, the theatre and the townhouse, little inferior to any other in France, are the most remarkable edifices within the walls. Four bronze fountains rise in the centre of the Royal Place, and several long streets reach from it to the extremities of the town, two of them extend in different directions, and meet at a triumphal arch. The hospital and the barracks are decorated with many ornaments, the churches are more modest or at all events not so gaudy in point of architecture. The church of Bon-Secours in the Suburb Saint Nicolas, contains a master-work by Girardon, it is the mausoleum erected to the memory of Stanislas, king of Poland, the person by whom the city was enlarged and embellished. The tombs of the dukes of Lorraine are

BOOK CXLVI.

much inferior as specimens of art, they are placed within the cathedral. The old town resembles what Nancy was before the virtuous Stanislas, whose income did not certainly exceed L.100,000, undertook to build a new city, which together with the improvements made by him at Luneville, and the sums laid out in founding schools and useful institutions, prove what may be done by economical and judicious management.

Useful institutions.

It is to the same prince that Nancy owes an academy of letters and sciences, a valuable museum, a public library of 26,000 volumes, and a botanical garden, in which there are more than four thousand plants. Commerce and the various branches of industry connected with it were not held in great estimation; the town might have been compared to a French noble of past days, who thought himself degraded if he engaged in trade. But these prejudices and other effects of ignorance have within the last ten years been gradually removed; the inhabitants are now aware that their town possesses nothing royal but deserted palaces and melancholy associations. It carries on a trade in vulnerary drugs, embroidered stuffs, cloth and cotton, for which there are two large manufactories. The impulse has been given, and the canal from Paris to the Rhine may render Nancy one of the most industrious cities in France. The inhabitants may distinguish themselves in literature and in the arts, they have not forgotten that Callot, whose patriotism was only equalled by his talent, that Madame de Graffigny, Palissot, Saint Lambert and other celebrated persons still alive, were born in the town.

Pont-à-Mousson.

The Meurthe joins the Moselle at the distance of two leagues below Nancy. Pont-à-Mousson is situated on the last river, at the base of a high hill near a valley surrounded by fruitful heights. The town is divided into two parts which communicate with each other by means of a bridge; it contains seven thousand inhabitants, the houses are well-built, one of the squares is encompassed with arcades. It was the birthplace of the brave Duroc, who fell in battle on the twenty-third of May 1813. Remains of ancient times have been discovered on the height from which it

derives its name, and which, it has been proved, was crowned with a temple dedicated to Jupiter.

Toul.

The name of Toul has undergone during a period of eighteen hundred years fewer changes than that of most towns; it was called *Tullum* when it was the capital of the *Leuci* in the time of Cæsar. The Moselle flows below the walls; the buildings are hardly worthy of notice; the ancient diocesan church is of Gothic architecture, but without ornaments and without majesty. The town is not very populous, the trade is insignificant, it consists chiefly in earthen ware and leather.

Department of Upper Marne.

The inhabitants of Upper Marne are industrious; the fields, the vineyards and the woods are productive. The soil, unequal and mountainous, is richer in iron than any other department; it is very fruitful in different kinds of grain, and it is doubtful, if relatively to the superficial extent, more horses and oxen are reared in any other part of the kingdom; in short, if the means of communication corresponded with the fruitfulness of the soil, or with the industry and activity of the inhabitants, it might be classed with the most wealthy and most populous departments in France.

Bourbon-les-Bains.

Bourbon-les-Bains rises on the eastern side of the ridge of Langres; it is built on a declivity at the confluence of two small rivers, the Borne and the Apance. Many of the houses are old, most of the streets are crooked, and the town does not contain more than three thousand inhabitants; but it derives some importance from the celebrity of the baths, and also perhaps from a large military hospital in which there are more than five hundred beds. The temperature of the springs varies from thirty to forty-eight degrees of Reaumur: a person, it is said, cannot hold his hand in the water, but he may drink it without any painful sensation. The use of them is recommended in nervous complaints, in paralysis and other diseases; the first baths were erected by the Romans, and the place was called *Aquæ Borvonis*. The Meuse takes its source in a valley about four leagues eastward of the town. Two small vallies on the south of it are watered by two streams, and their junc-

BOOK CXLVI.

tion forms the Marne, which traverses the department from south to north.

Langres.

Langres is situated near the sources of the same river, on the summit of a steep height; it exports a great quantity of cutlery into different countries, and carries on a considerable trade in fur with Switzerland. It seems as if the prosperity of the town depended on these branches of industry, and as the population was much diminished about ten years ago, there is reason to believe that without them it might fall into decay. There are different useful and charitable institutions, the most celebrated perhaps are the schools in which geometry and mechanics in their application to the arts, are gratuitously taught. The cathedral is considered a fine monument of the middle ages, but the public buildings form a sad contrast with narrow and deserted streets; on the whole, it is a very different place from what it was under the Roman emperors. It bore the name of *Andematunum*, but the Romans called it *Lingones*, for thus the inhabitants and the people in the neighbouring country were designated; it had its senators, temples, capitol and theatres; the people raised statues and triumphal arches to Roman masters, and it is certain that inscriptions found within the walls, have served to illustrate some difficult points connected with history and antiquarian research.

Eponina. and Sabinus.

The town is mentioned in the writings of Tacitus and Plutarch, they have related the history of Sabinus, a citizen who revolted against Vespasian, and who after the defeat of his party, set fire to his habitation, a stratagem by which he was believed to have perished in the flames. Sabinus concealed himself in a sepulchral vault, and confided only in the discretion of a faithful slave, and in the affection of his wife Eponina; but the frequent absence of the latter, and the birth of two children revealed a secret which had been kept nine years. They were conducted to Rome, and brought before the Emperor; the sufferings of Sabinus, the heroic devotedness of his wife, the sight of the two children, their tears and the prayers of their mother were all unavailing. Eponina was permitted to share the fate of a husband with whom

she had lived so long in a tomb. Sabinus and Eponina, from their adventures and the celebrity of their historians, may be mentioned among the remarkable natives of Langres, but it need not be forgotten that Diderot was also born in the same place.

Nogent-le-Roi, a small town of two thousand inhabitants, shares with Bourmont a trade in cutlery and hardwares; the latter does not contain more than twelve hundred individuals, it possesses, however, a public library; both of them are situated in the district of Chaumont, a well built city on the declivity of a hill above the banks of the Marne. It was fortified by Lewis the Twelfth, and it was formerly the capital of Bassigni; Russia, Austria and Prussia concluded there an alliance against Napoleon. As the capital of the department, it possesses such useful and benevolent institutions as in the present state of society may be considered indispensable; the old walls have been repaired since the year 1821, and it is now ranked among the strong towns in France. The celebrated men of Chaumont are Bouchardon the sculptor, and Lemoine the jesuit.

Chaumont.

The windings of the Marne lead to Joinville, a small town of four thousand inhabitants, still commanded by the castle in which the companion of Saint Lewis and the celebrated Cardinal Lorraine were born. It was at Vassy or Wassy, a place at some leagues from the Marne, that the creatures of the Guises massacred in 1561 a number of Protestants, while they were assembled in their church, an event that proved the harbinger of the civil wars. Saint Dizier, at the northern extremity of the department, is well-built, and encompassed with pleasant walks; it contains six thousand inhabitants; it is a town of some consequence from its commerce and industry; twice in the space of six months, the allied armies were defeated under the walls by the French.

Joinville.

Vassy.

The extent of the roads and navigable rivers in the department of Aube, counteract the disadvantages of an unfruitful soil. The Seine and the Aube water it from south-east to north-west, the roads to Dijon, Befort, Sens,

Department of Aube.

BOOK CXLVI.

Chalons-sur-Marne and Paris, cross it in different directions. Undulated ridges form the surface, which may be divided into two regions; the one on the north-west, consisting of plains and hills, covered with a thin stratum of alluvial land, is by no means productive; oats, secale and buck wheat are the only kinds of grain that succeed, but they yield so scanty crops that a great part of the land is suffered to lie waste. The same region, wholly destitute of trees, has been called Champagne Pouilleuse, a name that may be considered very descriptive of it;* the inhabitants are as poor as the soil. The region on the south-east differs little from the last in its geological structure; but the chalk is everywhere covered with thick and very fertile alluvial deposits, in some districts however, they are so heavy and tenacious that it requires twelve horses to draw the plough. The fruitfulness of the country forms a happy contrast with the sterility in Champagne Pouilleuse, which might certainly be rendered less unproductive by planting resinous trees and others that thrive on light lands. Cattle, poultry and bees are reared in the rural districts. The population falls below the mean term in the rest of France, but the grain harvests are three times more abundant, and the quantity of potatoes is still greater in proportion. It produces excellent wines, of which two-thirds are exported; it is well supplied with horses, but not so with oxen and sheep. The industry and trade of the department are rising into importance; the chalk so common in the country is fashioned into different shapes, and sold as an article of commerce; cotton and cloth are the principal manufactures.

Bar-sur-Aube.

The burgh of Clairvaux on the left bank of the Aube was once famed for a very wealthy abbey, founded in the year 1115 by Hugh Count of Troyes, and Stephen abbot of Citeaux. Saint Bernard was the first abbot, and a vat may be seen, that is still called by his name, it can contain eight thousand tuns. The building has been partly converted into manufactories, in which the workmen make cloths, bed covers and cotton stuffs. The

* Pouilleux signifies poor and wretched.

almost ruined walls in the small town of Bar-sur-Aube bear testimony to the devastations committed by the hordes of Attila; the neighbourhood was the scene of a destructive combat between the allies and the French in the year 1814. BOOK CXLVI.

Brienne, at no great distance from the right bank of the Aube, is divided into two parts, that are separated from each other by a space not less than a thousand paces in length; the one is Brienne-la-Ville, and the other Brienne-le-Chateau. The first rises near the river, and the second on an artificial height, crowned by a castle that was built for a military school by Lomenil de Brienne; the same school counts Napoleon Bonaparte in the list of its pupils. The town was taken and retaken in January 1814 by the French and allies; many of the buildings were much injured, the population has been greatly reduced, it does not exceed at present two thousand inhabitants. Brienne.

Bar-sur-Seine, although less populous, is better built than Bar-sur-Aube; a stone bridge of elegant architecture communicates with both banks of the river, and public walks shaded with lofty trees extend in the neighbourhood. The town of Riceys, containing 4000 inhabitants, is formed by the junction of Ricey-Haut, Ricey-Bas, and Ricey-Haute-Rive, three burghs that were founded by an ancient Helvetian tribe. Ten thousand casks of excellent wine are every year exported from the district into Belgium and other countries in the north. Bar-sur-Seine.

Troyes, the ancient capital of Champagne, stands in the middle of a large and fruitful plain which the Seine waters; the river encompasses part of the town, and divides itself into several artificial branches or canals that were constructed in the twelfth century by Theobald the fourth, to whom the inhabitants are indebted for the institutions that ensure the prosperity of their town. It is long since the palace inhabited by that prince and some of his successors has disappeared, but the remembrance of their wise administration is still preserved in the country. The marriage between Henry the Fifth, king of England, and Catherine of France, the daughter of Charles the Sixth, was celebrated at Troyes on the 21st of May 1420. The same Troyes.

BOOK CXLVI.

Charles was not ashamed to sign a treaty, by which his son-in-law became master of his dominions; but nine years afterwards the English were expelled by Charles the Seventh or rather by Joan d'Arc. The town was encompassed with feeble ramparts before the middle ages; it was then called *Trecæ*. At the period when the Huns desolated Gaul, Saint-Loup, the Bishop, sent a deputation consisting of seven clerks and a dean to Attila; the barbarian conqueror was about to receive them, when the luminous rays reflected from the sacred ornaments that were carried with great solemnity, terrified the horse of one of his generals, who was in consequence thrown from his seat, and killed on the spot. Magic, Magic! cried the furious chief, and the poor clerks with their dean were put to death. Troyes, however, was spared; but Attila, compelled by the Roman general Aetius to retire from Gaul, passed through the town, and, in order to protect his retreat, made Saint-Loup accompany him to the Rhine. Troyes was a place of some importance when Julian defeated the Germans, who threatened to besiege it. Augustus conferred on it the privileges of a city, and gave it the name of *Augustobona*. It may be ranked from the number of wooden houses among the ill-built towns in France; still some of the streets are broad and straight, and some of the edifices are remarkable. The cathedral may be mentioned for the elegance of the Gothic architecture, the magnificence of the portal, and the boldness of the arches. It was founded in the year 872, and demolished by the Normans in 898; having been rebuilt in the following century, it was destroyed in 1188 by a fire which consumed the whole town; the inhabitants began to build it for the third time about the commencement of the thirteenth century, but it was not finished before the sixteenth. The church of Saint Urbain is considered a model of elegance and lightness; the townhouse was built according to the plans of Mansard, the front of it is in every way worthy of that great architect. The public library, which contains 55,000 volumes and 5000 manuscripts, may be classed with the most valuable in France. We may mention among the great men who were born at Troyes, pope Urbain the Fourth,

Buildings.

the son of a cobbler, he instituted the festival of the Holy Sacrament, Passerat, one of the authors of Menippée, Juvenal Des Ursins, the historian of Charles the Sixth, Girardon the sculptor, and Mignard the painter. Piney, a flourishing burgh, in which more than a hundred and twenty workmen are employed in making cordage, is situated in the neighbourhood.

Arcis-sur-Aube.

Arcis-sur Aube was much injured by the allied army in 1814, but it has since been enlarged and improved by the industrious inhabitants. The burgh of Romilly, about two leagues above the confluence of the Aube and the Seine, carries on a trade in hosiery and cottons. The body of Voltaire was interred in the neighbouring abbey of Selliere, in the year 1778, but the building has been since destroyed. The river waters Nogent-sur-Seine, a neat town and the capital of the district, in which are situated the ruins of Paraclet, a monastery founded by Abeilard.

Department of Marne.

The department of Marne extends on the north of the last; the soil, although of the same sort, may be considered more fruitful; long ridges of chalk are covered with alluvial lands, that yield very valuable wines and a great quantity of corn. The wines are divided into two classes, *those of the river and the heights*; the vineyards near the Marne belong to the first, the others at a distance from it to the second. The people in the rural districts rear a greater number of sheep than the inhabitants of most agricultural departments; the lower orders in the towns find employment in manufactories and in different branches of industry.

Vitry-le Brûlé.

The town of Vitry on the river Orne, now the village of *Vitry-le-Brûlé*, derives its surname from an act of cruelty committed by Lewis the Young. While that prince was engaged in war against Theobald, count of Champagne, he made himself master of Vitry, and put all the inhabitants to death. Actuated by scruples that cannot be easily defined, he refused to pollute a church with blood, to which 1300 persons had fled for refuge; but he set it on fire, assisted in destroying the victims, heard their cries, saw the flames extending their ravages without emotion, and did not leave the place until the silent smoke rising from

BOOK CXLVI.

the ruins announced that his vengeance was complete. The sad surname which the town had thus acquired, was confirmed by new disasters in the sixteenth century; it was burnt by the troops of John of Luxemburg, and afterwards wholly destroyed by Charles the Fifth. Francis the First determined to rebuild it, but he chose a more advantageous site on the banks of the Marne, and gave it his name, which proves that it ought to be called *Vitri le-François*, and not *le-Français* ;* at present, however, it is generally styled Vitry-sur-Marne. The founder intended to make it a strong place, but it is merely encompassed by a ditch and earthen ramparts; the houses are well built, the streets are broad and straight.

Vitry-le Francois.

The road from Vitry to Sezanne crosses large and monotonous plains, the scene of unequal struggles between the French and allied armies in 1814, the small town of Fère-Champenoise was one of those which suffered the most. Sezanne, formerly a strong place, and once more populous than at present, contains hardly four thousand inhabitants. It has experienced many calamities; the earl of Salisbury took it by assault; the protestants levelled it with the ground in the reign of Charles the Ninth; it was entirely destroyed in 1632 by a fire that lasted several days, and which occasioned a loss of property, that was then thought equivalent to L.250,000; it carries on at present a trade in different articles, but principally in agricultural produce.

Sezanne.

Montmirail or Montmirel stands on an eminence above one of the roads that leads from Paris to Chalons; it contains about two thousand inhabitants, it is celebrated on account of a victory which the French gained on the seventeenth of February 1814.

Montmirail.

Epernay is situated in a small valley on the left bank of the Marne: a gate formed by two towers leads to the public walk, all that remains of the fortifications which defended Epernay in the time of Henry the Fourth, who made himself master of the town, but not before the duke of Biron, on whom he leant, was killed at his side. The principal suburb is built on the banks of the river,

Epernay.

* Victoriacum Francisci in Latin.

and very extensive cellars have been cut in the chalky heights that command it. The inhabitants have a theatre and a public library; their trade consists in *fire proof* or Champagne earthen ware, of which the average quantity that is annually exported into other departments does not weigh less than five hundred tons. The wealth of Epernay is principally derived from the sale of white and red wines; the latter are chiefly produced on the left bank of the Marne, near the small but ancient town of *Vertus;* the sparkling white wines are partly obtained from the village of Pierry, and the burgh of Avize, but the best sorts are those on the opposite bank, where Ai, a burgh of two thousand five hundred inhabitants, rises in the form of an amphitheatre, where the vineyards on the heights round Mareuil are not less famous; Cumiers and Hautvillers on the left, are not perhaps so well known, still they produce excellent wines. The finest part of the country is formed by the line of populous villages and fruitful heights that are crowned by the forest of Reims.

Chalons.

The road on the left bank of the Marne commands a view of the varied and romantic sites, that extend on the opposite bank from Epernay to Chalons-sur-Marne. It might be shown that Chalons or Chaalons, as it was formerly written, is derived from *Catalaunum*, the name it bore in the time of Ammianus Marcellinus; it was a city of the *Catalauni*, and it is called *Duro-Catalauni* in the Itinerary of Antonine. It stands between two plains in the middle of meadows; the larger meadow was the place where the emperor Aurelian defeated Tetricus, who was proclaimed emperor by the Gauls. The position of Chalons is not unfavourable for trade; the Marne and six important roads cross the town, which is encompassed with walls and ditches; most of the houses are built of wood, but the streets are broad and straight. The town-house is adorned with a fine front, the prefect's palace, the school of arts and trades, are remarkable for the simplicity and elegance of their architecture; the cathedral might be admired, if it were not for two clumsy pyramidical towers and a Greek portal, that accords ill with the rest of the building. The botanical garden contains fifteen thousand plants;

BOOK CXLVI.

there are also a collection of natural history, and a good library. Lacaille, the celebrated astronomer, David Blondel the architect, and Perrot d'Ablancourt were born in the town. The gate on the road to Strasburg leads also to the Jard, perhaps the finest public walk in the department.

We may observe at the distance of two leagues on the same road, an elegant Gothic building, the church of Epine; it was erected by Lewis the Twelfth for the purpose of fulfilling a vow; it may be regretted that it was necessary to pull down one of the towers in order to build a telegraph. The long village of Courtisols or Courtisou is situated on the right, at no great distance from the church; it occupies an extent of nearly two leagues from one extremity to the other; it is formed by two parallel streets, consisting of houses that are separated from each other by plantations; it is divided into three parishes, those of Saint-Julian, Saint-Mammie and Saint-Martin. The population exceeds two thousand individuals. The language which the inhabitants speak amongst themselves, is not known in the neighbouring villages; they observe ancient ceremonies that are not practised in other parts of the country; they are excellent husbandmen, indeed their lands are the best cultivated and the most productive in the department. From these facts, it has been inferred that the Courtisians are descended from some of the barbarous tribes that settled in Gaul after the reign of Constantine; others consider them a colony of Helvetians.* Their language is merely a French *patois*, and the name of their village signifies detached houses. As to their origin, it is very doubtful that they migrated from Valais, they are probably descended from some of the ancient tribes in Gaul, they have preserved the manners and customs of their ancestors. The remains of a Roman road, and the traces of an enclosure where Attila and his army encamped, may be seen in the neighbourhood. The famous camp of Lune, and the village of Valmy, where the king of Prussia was defeated in 1702 by an army of volunteers under the command of Kellermann, are situated on the road between Courtisou and Sainte-

Courtisou.

Sainte-Menehould.

* See the Memoires de la Societé royale des antiquaires de France, tome 5.

Menehould, a town watered by the Aisne, and remarkable for the regularity of the streets and buildings. Although the works which defended it are now in ruins, it may be observed that it was the first place which Lewis the Fourteenth besieged. BOOK CXLVI.

The population and industry of Reims or Rheims render it an important town; as a place of antiquity it is not without interest, but its celebrity depends principally on the historical associations connected with it. In ancient times it was the chief town in the country of the *Remi*, who gave it the name of *Durocortum*, but ancient geographers call it indifferently *Durocortorum* and *Durocortora*. It was famed for different schools in the time of Hadrian, and it then possessed monuments, of which ruins or traditions are all that remain. The gates of Phebus, Ceres and Bacchus indicate so many temples beyond the walls; the gate of Mars forms a triumphal arch which, it is believed, was erected by Julian; part of it was repaired by Napoleon, but an old wall that conceals it, has not been removed. The gate of Mars stands near the *Arenæ*, where traces of an amphitheatre may be easily discovered. The tomb of Jovinus, a native of Reims, who rose at Rome to the consular dignity in the year 366, is preserved in the cathedral. The most of the streets are broad and straight; the Royal Place is adorned with a bronze statue of Lewis the Fifteenth, it was removed at the revolution, and replaced in 1819. The hospital is a large and elegant building; the cathedral is one of the few Gothic edifices of the kind which have been finished; the portal is loaded with figures, in form it resembles a pyramid; within the building the kings of France are consecrated. The ashes of Saint-Remi, the benefactor and tutelar Saint of the town, repose in the church of the same name, a church much more ancient than the cathedral, and the one where the holy *ampulla* is kept with superstitious care; but the famous phial was publicly destroyed in 1793, a new one, however, has been obtained, and according to report, it contains some drops of the oil with which Clovis was anointed by Saint Remi. By an anachronism not unfrequent in the middle ages, the king and the twelve peers of

Reims.

Buildings.

BOOK CXLVI.

France are represented on the tomb of the saint. The statue of Henry the Fourth has been restored to its ancient place above the gate of the townhouse, a large building, which contains a valuable library. Old writers mention the church of Saint Nicaise on account of a shaking pillar that excited in past times much curiosity, but many years have elapsed since the pillar was destroyed. The town is surrounded with a wall flanked by old towers, and shaded by an inner range of trees; it is also encompassed by ditches, and a public walk extends around them to the place where the marshy banks of the Vesle bathe it on the south. It was destitute of good water until the prebend Gaudinot constructed a machine at his own expense, by which the streams of the small river are now distributed into every part of the town. The same excellent person may be mentioned among the distinguished townsmen of Reims; it is also the birth place of Colbert and Pluche.

Department of Ardennes.

Before the region of Ardennes was peopled by civilized inhabitants, it formed in all probability a vast forest; the Celts called it *Ard* from a mountainous chain, which steep declivities and rugged summits render apparently more lofty than it really is. But according to a different account, the name of the country may be derived from the goddess *Ardeiana*, the Diana of the ancient Belgians. The Romans called it *Arduena Sylva;* at present, however, the forest of Ardennes does not occupy a greater extent than 250,000 acres. The department may still be considered one of the best wooded in France; timber forms the principal article of commerce; as the grain harvests are inadequate to the consumption, and as comparatively few vineyards are situated in the country, the wood is exchanged for corn and wine; the remainder is used as fuel, and serves to supply different works and manufactories. The rocks on the mountains are chiefly calcareous and schistous; the people work a great quantity of iron, some veins of lead, and extensive slate quarries. The geological products are various, most kinds of rocks from granite to chalk may be observed in the department. The Meuse and the Aisne are the two most important rivers, the extent of roads is not so great as in other parts of the

kingdom; the population might be increased, if the means of communication were improved.

Vouziers is the capital of a poor and small district, that contains little likely to attract attention; the town is situated on the left bank of the Aisne, which waters Attigny, a place of some celebrity at an early period, because the kings of the first and second race chose it as their summer residence; at present, however, it can hardly be called a town; the population is not equal to fifteen hundred individuals. The same river flows at the base of Rethel, which stands on a height near the site of an old fortress that the Romans called *Castrum Retectum;* the inhabitants manufacture cloth, flannels and woollen stuffs. The river begins to be navigable at Chateau-Portien. Rethel.

Many populous villages are scattered in the territory of Sedan; the inhabitants export different manufactures, and are engaged in different sorts of industry; if little attention is bestowed on agriculture, it must be imputed to the sterility of the soil. The capital or Sedan was, like Rethel, originally a fortress, Charles the Bald took possession of it in the year 880. It became an important place, after it was made the chief town in a principality subject first to the archbishops of Reims, then to the family of La Marck, and at a later period to the house of La Tour d'Auvergne; it was ceded in 1642 to Lewis the Thirteenth in exchange for the dutchies of Albert, Chateau-Thierry and the county of Evreux. The woollen stuffs of Sedan were exported into different countries, but when it was added to France, it lost with its freedom part of its trade. Colbert, however, encouraged the manufacturers, and they derived considerable profits by supplying the Parisians with a light-coloured cloth, which Lewis the Fourteenth affected to admire, and which on that account, became very fashionable; it is in making black cloth, however, that the present manufacturers of Sedan are said to excel. The town is well built, the streets are broad and straight, the houses are large, and a fine bridge rises on the Meuse. The arms of many famous knights are preserved in the arsenal; and an old castle in the vicinity was the birthplace of Turenne. Sedan is at present included among the strong places of the third class. Sedan.

BOOK CXLVI.

Doncherry, a flourishing town before the principality was united to France, does not now contain eighteen hundred inhabitants.

Mezieres.

The Meuse forms many windings, and returns twice nearly to the same place, it waters Mezieres, a town of which the importance depends more on fortifications than on the number of inhabitants. It was made the capital of the department on account of its military position; the houses and streets are ill built, the walls are old and clumsy, but it was there Bayard compelled Charles the Fifth and his numerous army to retreat. It is only separated from Charleville by the Meuse which in one of its windings forms a small peninsula; the last town is much larger than Mezieres, it contains nearly eight thousand inhabitants, and it differs from it in other respects, the streets are broad and straight, and the regularity with which it is built, renders the defects of the neighbouring city more apparent. The four principal streets terminate in a large square, encompassed by arcades, and decorated with a marble fountain. The theatre is a large building, several valuable manuscripts are contained in the public library, and some curious articles may be observed in the collection of antiquities. More industrious than Mezieres, it supplies the department with a great quantity of cutlery, hardwares, nails and other goods of the same kind; there are different workshops in which fire-arms are made, one of them was established by government. A favourable position and a convenient harbour account in some measure for its trade. It was founded in the seventeenth century by Charles de Gonzague, duke of Nevers and Mantua; but it was taken in the year 1686 by France, and the fortifications were destroyed. A height in the neighbourhood, formerly commanded by a strong castle, has been dignified with the classical name of Olympus. The duke of Nevers and Mantua retired to the castle after the loss of the town, he was at last compelled to yield to his more powerful adversary.

Charleville.

Before the Meuse leaves France, it waters a belt of land below Charleville, which comprehends the greater part of the Ardennes forest. It passes through Fumay, of which the

Fumay.

schistous quarries yield annually forty millions of slates. The same river separates Givet-Notre-Dame near the frontier from Givet-Saint Hilarie and Charlemont; the two last are situated on the left bank, but all the three are united by their fortifications, and form in reality a single town, that may be ranked among the strong places of the first class. Charlemont, as its name signifies, stands on a height, the two Givets are situated below it, the one on the declivity and the other near the base of a hill in an opposite direction; they are regularly built, adorned with large squares, and enriched by trade. The harbour is convenient; the duties were lately diminished, and the commerce between it and the Netherlands has consequently been increased. Givet was the birthplace of Mehul, one of the best French composers. The origin of the double town has been attributed to two villages, which according to tradition were built before Cæsar's time; the fortifications were planned by Vauban. Charlemont was founded by Charles the Fifth, but it has been a French town since the treaty of Nimeguen, which was concluded in 1678. Rocroy, a strong place, is situated in a fruitful plain, encompassed by the Ardennes forest, it is celebrated on account of a victory that the great Condé, then hardly twenty-two years of age, gained over the Spaniards.

Givet and Charlemont.

The Oise crosses the department of Aisne from north-east to south-west, and the river from which it has taken its name, flows from east to west. The two rivers water first chalky lands, but as they proceed, they pass between calcareous rocks, to which the chalk serves as a support. The heights are mostly confined to the south, low plains extend on the north. The Somme, the Schelet and the Sambre rise in the department. The temperature is very variable, and the frosts in spring are often hurtful to vegetation. The forests are extensive, indeed the mast or the fruit of the beech tree produces, in some years a quantity of oil, equal in value to L.20,000; it is sold and consumed in the country.* Agriculture has arrived at a high degree of perfection; more than two-thirds of the harvest

Department of Aisne.

* See La Statistique du département de l'Aisne by M. Brayer.

BOOK CXLVI.

are exported; the number of horses, oxen and sheep, relatively to the extent of surface, is much greater than in most other parts of the kingdom. The department is well provided with roads and navigable rivers, and it seems as if the knowledge and industry of the inhabitants were proportionate to their means of communication.

The Oise is not larger than a rivulet at the burgh of Hirson, which carries on a trade in lace, cutlery, nails and iron bars. Nouvion-en-Tierarche contains three thousand individuals; glass forms the principal article of commerce, and the glass works are the most remarkable buildings in the place. The rich pastures in the district enable the inhabitants to supply different parts of France with excellent cheese.

Guise.

The small town of Guise, formerly a stronghold, was erected into a titular duchy by Francis the First in favour of Claude of Lorraine; it is at present peopled by three thousand five hundred inhabitants, and the lower orders are mostly employed in manufacturing cotton. Vervins, still less populous, rises like an amphitheatre on the banks of the Velpion; it is mentioned in history on account of the treaty concluded between Henry the Fourth and Philip the Second.

Saint Quentin.

Many villages, burghs and small towns are scattered in the district of Saint Quentin; the inhabitants manufacture fine linen, gauze and shawls of different sorts. All these branches of industry are united in Saint Quentin, the chief town, of which the population has doubled within the last forty years. It is well built, and a subterranean canal, almost two leagues in length, facilitates the conveyance of goods. The situation on the banks of the Somme, at some leagues from its source, corresponds with the position of *Augusta-Veromanduorum* on the *Lanara*, in ancient times, the chief city of the *Veramandui*. Sacked by barbarians in the sixth century, it was afterwards rebuilt; it then obtained the name which it now bears, probably because Saint Eloi pretended to have found the bones of Saint Quentin three hundred and sixty years after his martyrdom.

The Oise, at no great distance below its confluence with

the Serre, waters an island; La Fere, a small fortified town, is situated near its southern extremity; it contains two thousand five hundred inhabitants, it has a school of artillery, and an arsenal. A subterranean passage, two hundred feet in length, supported by arcades sixty feet in height, is said to be the work of Goujon, it is certainly constructed with great elegance and skill. A detachment of the Prussian army appeared before La Fere on the 26th of February 1814, and as it was then only defended by four hundred men, they were compelled to surrender; the enemy took possession of whatever was in the arsenal and in the library. The Prussians having been informed that it was well supplied with provisions, attempted to take it a second time in 1815. The garrison was by no means strong, but the troops, the national guard and even the women displayed great bravery and determination; they suffered the severest privations during a blockade that lasted nearly five months, at last the enemy thought it prudent to retire. The Prussians asked permission to pass through the town, a condition which the citizens refused; the general then raised the blockade, and sent a letter to the authorities, congratulating them on the courage of the inhabitants and the garrison. The burgh of Saint Gobain in the same district, is known in France for its mirrors and looking glasses, some of the former are ten feet in height by five in breadth; three millions of bottles are made every year in the neighbouring burgh of Folembray.

La Fere.

Saint Gobain.

Laon, about five leagues on the south-east of La Fere, crowns a detached hill in the middle of a large plain. It owes its origin to a Gallic fortress, which was called *Laudunum* in the fifth century; it was enlarged by Clovis, and it became a royal residence under the kings of the second race; indeed Lothaire and Lewis the Fifth were born in the town. The most remarkable buildings are the old cathedral, —a Gothic edifice, that was finished in the year 1115, and the tower of Lewis d'Outre-Mer, which the Vandals of the revolution attempted in vain to destroy in the year 1794. The burgh of Notre-Dame de Liesse, about three leagues on the north-east of Laon, was built in the time of the crusades; it possessed formerly a miraculous image of

Laon.

BOOK CXLVI.

the Virgin, which, according to the legends, was brought from Cairo in a single night by the daughter of an Egyptian sultan.

Soissons.

Soissons, the capital of a district, and the seat of a diocess, a clean and well built town, claims a very ancient origin; it was called *Loviodunum* before the munificence of Augustus induced the inhabitants to change the name into *Augusta-Suessionum*. It is situated in a fruitful valley watered by the Aisne; it had its kings before the conquest of Gaul, and even after the invasion of the Franks. It was in the neighbourhood that the feeble remains of Roman power were destroyed by Clovis. The present fortifications were erected by the duke of Mayenne, who made it his principal depot of arms and ammunition. The temporary works of defence that were raised in 1815, enabled it to offer a long resistance to the allied armies.

La Ferté-Milon.

The small town of La Ferté-Milon near the forest of Villers-Cotterets, is built like an amphitheatre on the declivity of a hill; it is watered by the Ourcq, encompassed with walls, and commanded by the ruins of a strong castle. It claims the honour of having given birth to Racine; the bust of the poet decorates the public library, which contains seventeen thousand volumes, but his statue ought to be erected in the court of the town-house. As there are three churches, an hospital and different public institutions, it might be supposed that the town was a place of some importance, the population, however, does not exceed two thousand three hundred individuals.

Chateau-Thierry.

Chateau-Thierry is situated on the Marne; a public walk extends on the right bank of the river, and the town is separated by a modern bridge from one of the suburbs. The new buildings contrast well with the ruins of the castle, from which the town derives its name. The old castle was built by Charles Martel in the year 720, as a residence for the young king Thierry the Fourth. It was inhabited by that prince, by the counts of Vermandois, by those of Champagne, by Henry the Second, the Duke of Alençon, who died in it, by Lewis the Thirteenth and the dukes of Bouillon; houses were gradually built round it, and in one of them still inhabited, the celebrated Lafontaine was born.

Department of Seine and Marne.

La Ferté-sous-Jouarie.

The department of Seine and Marne is watered on the south by the first river, and on the north by the second. La Ferté-sous-Jouarie, a small town on the Marne, is situated in a fruitful valley; the cleanliness which prevails, the elegance of the houses, and the activity of the harbour indicate an industrious city. The population amounts to more than four thousand souls; there are two manufactories of carding combs, in which forty thousand kilogrammes of leather and iron are used every year; it exports a great quantity of mill-stones into different countries, and carries on a considerable trade in wood and charcoal for the supply of the capital. The neat burgh of Dammartin on the north of the Marne, rises on a detached hill, and commands a view which extends to a distance of more than fifteen leagues; a cattle fair of some consequence is held every year in the month of December. Juilly, a place of some celebrity on account of a college, is situated near the burgh of Chelles, where Chilperic was assassinated in 584; part of a rich abbey still remains, it was founded in the seventh century by Batilda, the wife of Clovis the second.

Meaux.

Meaux on the banks of the Marne is the chief town in a subprefecture, and the seat of a diocess. It is the ancient city of *Jatinum*, the capital of the *Meldi*; hence it was called *Meldæ* after the Roman conquest. It was a place of some importance under the kings of the first race; at a later period the inhabitants were among the first in France, who embraced the principles of the reformation, and no other town suffered more during the religious wars in the sixteenth century. The Marne divides it into two unequal parts, and the Ourcq canal flows below the remains of walls that were destroyed in the time of the League. The streets are regular, the houses are well built, and within the cathedral are deposited the ashes of the celebrated Bossuet. The town carries on a great trade with Paris in oats and corn; it sends besides into different parts of France, more than 3,200,000 kilogrammes* of cheese, which still bears the name of the ancient province.

* The kilogramme is equal to 2 lbs. 3 oz. 5 dr. Avoirdupois.

BOOK CXLVI.

Many places are supplied with quills from Brie-Comte-Robert; the church is elegantly built, the Gothic arcades in the interior are remarkable for their lightness, and the tower rises to a considerable height; ruins covered with ivy indicate the site of an ancient castle, that belonged to the counts of Brie. Melun, the birthplace of James Amyot, is the ancient city of *Melodunum;* the Seine divides it into three parts, it stands at the base of a hill, and neat houses and clean streets add perhaps to the effect of a picturesque situation; the ruins of an old castle rise on the adjoining hill, it was inhabited by queen Blanche and several kings of France. Melun is the capital of the department, and a road leads to Fontainebleau, from which it is distant about four leagues; the latter town is regularly built and surrounded by a large forest. The neighbouring country is covered with the richest verdure, lofty oaks shade the walks and alleys, inequalities in the soil, and masses of sandstone vary the scenery. The plan of the royal castle was committed to Primaticci by Francis the First, it was afterwards embellished by five kings. Henry the Third was born in the same edifice, and Pius the Seventh resided in it eighteen months; it was there that the crime which has been attributed to Christina of Sweden was committed, it was there that Napoleon abdicated. The town consisted originally of the houses which were grouped round a castle built by Lewis the Young in 1169. It has been affirmed that it was first called *Fontaine-Belle-Eau*, but the name of *Fons Bliaud* which occurs in several deeds, serves to confirm the common opinion concerning the discovery of a spring. A dog named *Bliaud*, belonging to Lewis the Seventh, was missed in the chase, and after a long search the king found it quenching his thirst at a stream until then unknown; the place was afterwards chosen as the site of a hunting residence. Dancourt and Poinsinet are perhaps the most distinguished literary men that the town has produced.

Melun.

Fontainebleau.

Nemours is situated at the extremity of the same forest below the old castle of *Nemus;* the groves, by which they were formerly surrounded, account for the names of the castle and the town. Nemours was erected into a titular

Nemours.

dutchy in the fourteenth century, and the duke who fell at the battle of Cerignole, was the last descendant of the family of Armagnac. The dutchy has been perpetuated in the house of Orleans since the time of Lewis the Fourteenth. The population amounts to three thousand seven hundred inhabitants. An old castle rises above a modern bridge on the Loing, but the town is also watered by a canal, and it carries on a considerable trade in proportion to its size. The same feeder of the Seine, and the same canal water the ancient and pleasant town of Moret; but the Yonne enters the Seine about two leagues above it at Montereau-Font-Yonne, — the *Condate* of the Gauls, so called from its situation at the confluence of two rivers; the name of *Monasteriolum*, which it obtained after the introduction of Christianity into the country, has been gradually corrupted into Montereau. The bridge in the town serves to recal two important events: Charles the Seventh, then dauphin, and John Sans Peur, duke of Burgundy, having agreed to meet there in the year 1419, the duke was murdered by assassins, who were suborned by Charles: it was near the same bridge that the allied armies were defeated by the French in 1814. The town possesses a considerable trade in porcelain; the population does not exceed four thousand inhabitants.

Montereau

A road from the small town of Bray-sur-Seine extends along the valley watered by the Vouzie, and leads to Provins, which is called *Castrum Provinum* by the chroniclers of the eighth century; it is not, however, improbable that it existed in the time of the Romans. It is encompassed with old walls and ramparts; the upper town is built on a hill, and the remains of a fort that the inhabitants attribute to the Romans, rise on the summit; several monuments of the middle ages may be observed in different directions. It has of late years become a place of resort on account of a ferruginous spring. The counts of Champagne used to reside at Provins; the number of inhabitants, inconsiderable in proportion to the extent, proves that it was formerly more important than at present. Rozoy on the small river of Yeres is surrounded with ramparts shaded by lofty trees, it is adorned too by a fine Gothic church, but it is chiefly

Provins.

BOOK CXLVI.

worthy of notice on account of the famous paper manufactory at Courtalin, an adjoining hamlet; the waters that supply the works rise to the height of a hundred and sixty feet. Corn and leather are the principal articles of trade at Coulomiers, the small capital of a subprefecture.

Before we leave the department of Seine and Marne, it may be remarked that it abounds in corn and wine, that more sheep are reared in it than in many others, and that it derives great advantages from numerous means of communication.

Department of Oise.

The department of Oise is more populous, and almost as productive in corn, but it does not yield a fifth part of the wine; the inhabitants rear a great many sheep, like all the departments that surround Paris, it is intersected by numerous roads. Crepy or Crespy is finely situated in a valley watered by two streams, which flow through the town, once more flourishing than at present, it was defended by a castle now in ruins. The old walls are flanked with bastions, the number of inhabitants does not amount to more than two thousand. An excellent road communicates with Senlis, which the Romans called *Augustomagus*, and where the remains of the fortifications that they raised, are still apparent. It obtained afterwards the name of *Silvanectes*, probably on account of the forests with which it was surrounded. It rises on the declivity of a hill, and the Nonette waters the base. The most of the streets are narrow and crooked; the cathedral may be remarked for the lightness of the Gothic architecture, and the height of the steeple. The water in the small river is supposed to possess a peculiar quality, which renders it better adapted than any other for washing wool; the fact may be doubtful, but it must be admitted that many persons are employed in that branch of industry. There are not fewer than two hundred and fifty workmen in the cotton manufactories; the printfields furnish occupation to more than two hundred, and the making of flour and other substances from potatoes to a hundred and fifty. The forests of Hallate Ermonville, Pontarmé and Chantilly are situated in the neighbourhood, and the numerous streams in the large park of Mortefontaine add to the beauty of the

Senlis.

country. Ermenville still recals the philosopher of Geneva, and associations connected with the great Condé give additional interest to Chantilly. The magnificent castle, the residence of the hero, was destroyed at the revolution, and while the men were demolishing the chapel, they found the remains of Coligny, whose body was secretly transported from the gibbet of Montfaucon to the domain which then belonged to the house of Montmorency. The small castle and the principal stables remain entire, the latter are the finest buildings of the kind in France. The burgh might be more correctly denominated a town, it carries on a trade in porcelain, blond and lace. Creil is situated on the left bank of the Oise, it may be mentioned on account of porcelain works, in which more than nine hundred persons are employed. Montataire is situated in a fruitful valley, and watered by the Therain, it supplies many places with iron, and the machinery in the works is moved by the river. It was an ancient village, the church rises on an eminence, Peter the Hermit preached in it, and maintained the necessity of the first crusade. The country round Creil may be remarked for the industry of the inhabitants; in a space not greater than four leagues long by two in breadth, there are a hundred and seventy-nine manufactories and eight thousand workmen; the annual proceeds of their labour represent a value equivalent to 16,000,000 of franks. On the supposition that industry was as much diffused over the rest of France, the number of workmen in the kingdom might amount to 24,000,000, while the products of their labour would indicate a value equal to 48,000,000,000 franks, or L.2,000,000,000. Pont-Sainte-Maxence on the Oise is the only other town of any consequence in the district of Senlis; the bridge on the river was constructed by Peyronnet, it is supported by detached columns, and adorned by obelisks at the four extremities.

Creil.

It is affirmed that Compiegne was a town in the time of the Romans, that they called it *Compendium*, because it contained ammunition or military stores. A Roman way, incorrectly denominated the *Chaussée de Brunehault*, crosses the forests in the neighbourhood, and attests the ancient origin of the town. But Compiegne did not become a place of

Compiegne

BOOK CXLVI.

importance before the time of Charles the Bald. Lewis the Fair and Lewis the Faineant were buried in the church of Saint Corneille; Pepin the Bref placed in the same church the first organ that was seen in France, he received it from Constantine the Sixth. The royal castle is a large edifice, it was rebuilt by Lewis the Fifteenth, finished by Lewis the Sixteenth, and embellished by Napoleon. There are several fine buildings in the town, but the streets are for the most part narrow and crooked. It was formerly surrounded with walls; the English besieged it in 1430, and Joan of Arc was there taken prisoner. A treaty of alliance between France and Holland was concluded at Compiegne by Cardinal Richelieu in 1624. Noyon is without doubt a place of greater antiquity, the Romans changed its Celtic name into *Noviomagus;* it was the seat of a diocess in the time of Charlemagne, who was crowned in the town; the same monarch finished the cathedral, which was begun by Pepin the Bref. Noyon is the birthplace of Calvin the reformer, and of Sarrazin, a celebrated statuary of the sixteenth century.

Noyon.

Clermont.

Because the castle of Clermont-Oise stands on the summit of a hill, and the town on the base, it has been concluded that it was built by the Romans, although the ancient castle does not in any way resemble a Roman edifice. It is at present chiefly remarkable for the beauty of the surrounding country. Philip the Fair was born in the town, but it is more renowned as having been the birthplace of the celebrated Cassini. It was in the thirteenth century the capital of a county, which Saint Lewis gave to his son Robert, the founder of the house of Bourbon. A religious ceremony was formerly observed on the anniversary of Saint Jengou, the tutelar saint of *easy husbands;* it has been discontinued probably on account of the additional number of good wives; at all events the moral improvement of the inhabitants may be attributed to the progress of industry. The memory of the duke De Liancourt is revered in the country; the population in the small village from which he derived his title, was equal a few years ago to eight hundred inhabitants, it exceeds at present thirteen hundred. Liancourt is about a league and a half

from Clermont, and the small manufactories in other places in the neighbourhood afford the means of subsistence to laborious inhabitants.

Beauvais.

The same industry and activity are observable in the villages round Beauvais, indeed more than three hundred workmen are employed in the burgh of Bresle. The ancient capital of the small country formerly inhabited by the *Bellovaci*, was called *Bellovacum* before it received the name of *Cæsaro-Magus*. The streets are sufficiently broad, but many of the houses are built of wood. The choir of the cathedral is complete, the nave and other parts of the building are still unfinished. The old ramparts have been changed into public walks; the English besieged it without success in 1443, and Charles, duke of Burgundy, was not more fortunate in 1472. The latter siege is mentioned in history on account of the noble resistance of the inhabitants; they were not dismayed by an army of eighty thousand men, and the women sought the honour of defending the breach; under the conduct of Joan Fouquet or Laine, surnamed the *Hatchet*, they fought with as much intrepidity as the men. A Burgundian soldier had planted a standard on the wall, but Joan vanquished him, and carried away the trophy; the action is represented in a picture which decorates the townhouse. The siege was raised in the month of July; to commemorate the event, a procession went forth every year in the same month, and the women took precedence of the men; the ceremony was abolished at the revolution. Beauvais is a place of considerable trade, it has cloth, carpet and cotton manufactories. It has given birth to Philip de Villers, to Del' Ile-Adam, great master of the order of Malta, to Restaut the grammarian, to the abbé Dubos, to Herman and Valliant, two distinguished antiquarians.

Department of Seine and Oise.

The Oise enters the department of Seine and Oise, a short way above the village of Noisy. Beaumont, the first town through which it flows, contains two thousand inhabitants; it rises on a chalky height, and commands a view of the plain which extends on the right bank of the river. The small and agreeable town of Luzarches is about a league distant from the abbey of Royaumont, an abbey

BOOK CXLVI.

founded by Saint Lewis, and since converted into a cotton manufactory; a neat village was lately built in the vicinity.

Pontoise.

Pontoise rises like an amphitheatre at the confluence of the Oise and the Viorne. The streets are narrow and steep, the walls have been repaired, but part of those still remain, which were scaled by the army of Charles the Seventh, when the town was taken from the English in 1442. The states-general assembled at Pontoise in 1561; the parliament of Paris met in the same place in 1652, 1720 and 1753. The Celts gave the name of *Isar* to the river that waters it, hence the town was called *Brivisara*, which signifies literally *the bridge on the Isar*. The Oise was called *Inisa* in the seventh century, and the town *Pons Inisæ:* lastly, *Æsia* was substituted for Inisa, Pontoise was then named *Pons Æsiæ*, and afterwards *Pontæsia*. It was traversed by a Roman road, which extended from Paris to Rouen, some remains of it are still observed in the neighbourhood. Philip of Burgundy, the son of John the second of France, and General Leclerc were born in the town.

The small town of Mantes, surnamed *La Jolie*, because it is well built and finely situated on the left bank of the Seine, was, according to some authors, founded at the time the druids retained their authority. The Latin name of *Petro-Mantalum*, and the mistletoe on the ancient arms, seem to prove that the Celts venerated on the site which it occupies, the sacred stones and other emblems of the druidical worship. The church of Notre-Dame was built by Blanche of Castille and Margaret of Provence, the one the mother, and the other the wife of Saint Lewis. Articles of consumption are not liable to any tax or toll on entering the gates; the economical way in which the town's funds are managed, has enabled the magistrates to abolish these oppressive duties. Limay, which may be said to be a suburbs of Mantes, is only separated from it by the Seine; it is situated near the hermitage of Saint-Sauveur, where a chapel and a house cut in a chalky rock, still attract a great many pilgrims. The castle of Rosny, the birthplace of Sully, rises on the banks of the Seine at the distance of

Rosny.

two leagues below Mantes; at present the property of the duchess of Berri, the same pious lady has built a church and an hospital in the neighbourhood; they are consecrated to the memory of her unfortunate husband.

Meulan on the right bank of the Seine, was probably founded by the Celts, at all events the ancient name of *Mellentum* indicates a Celtic origin; it contains a population of two thousand souls; some of the old fortifications may still be seen, which enabled the inhabitants to resist the forces commanded by the duke of Mayenne. Poissy, the birthplace of Saint Lewis, is peopled by two thousand six hundred inhabitants; it was formerly the capital of Pincerais, the ancient *Pagus Pinciacensis.*

Meulan.

Poissy.

It formed part of the crown lands, and Charles the Bald assembled a parliament in the town. It was there Blanche of Castille told her son* to value his baptismal purity more than life, to be assured that whatever was onerous to the people could never be glorious to the prince.

A cattle market is held every week at Poissy, and the town of Paris imposes an annual tax of L.60 on the sale of the cattle. The ancient convent of the Ursulines has been changed into a workhouse, it may contain seven hundred and fifty paupers. The famous colloquy at Poissy, between the Catholic doctors and reformed ministers, who assembled in the convent during the reign of Charles the Ninth, lasted two months, but it was attended with no other result than that of exasperating the two parties against each other.

The forest which begins at a short distance from Poissy, and terminates at Saint Germain, was called the forest of Laye until the eleventh century, the time in which the town of Saint Germain was founded. It is encompassed with walls, and covers a surface of more than sixteen thousand acres. Shaded by lofty and luxuriant trees, intersected with broad avenues, there are few walks in France, that can be compared with it. The castle rises on a terrace, which is said to command a finer view than any in the neighbourhood of Paris; the length of the terrace is equal to two thou-

Forest of Saint Germain.

* Saint Lewis.

BOOK CXLVI.

sand four hundred yards, and the height to thirty. The castle of Saint Germain was begun during the reign of Francis the First, it was enlarged by Henry the Fourth and Lewis the Fourteenth; it serves at present as a barrack for a company of body guards. In the same edifice were born Margaret of France, the daughter of Francis the First, Henry the Second, Charles the Ninth and Lewis the Fourteenth. The town is well built, it is adorned with a large market place and a fine church; while workmen were digging the foundation of the latter in 1826, they discovered the remains of James Stuart.

Marly.

The road from Saint Germain to Paris extends along the Seine, and communicates with Marly, and on the heights above it are the remains of the machine that Lewis the Fourteenth erected to supply the aqueduct that leads to Versailles. Malmaison, at a greater distance from Marly, was the residence of Napoleon when at the height of his power, and also during the disastrous days that succeeded his defeat. The small burgh of Ruel contains three thousand inhabitants; it stands at the foot of a hill planted with vineyards. The neighbouring castle was inhabited by cardinal Richelieu, it was the scene of his pleasures, it was there he gratified his vengeance, making a confidant of the executioner, he received those whom he had determined in secret to put to death, with the utmost affability and kindness. The tomb of the empress Josephine is situated within the church of Ruel.

Ruel.

Argenteuil.

Argenteuil stands on the right bank of the Seine; it contains four thousand six hundred inhabitants, and the neighbouring country is very fruitful in wine. The remains of walls indicate the site of a monastery, which was founded in the seventh century; it is memorable as the retreat of Heloise, who became the abbess of it. A garment without any seams, according to tradition, worn by our Saviour, and presented by the empress Irena to Charlemagne, has been removed from the convent to the church, it is now preserved in a shrine above the altar.

Saint Cloud.

Saint Cloud on the left bank of the Seine, was called *Nogent* before the death of Clodoald, son of Clodomir, king

of Orleans; aware that his uncle Clotaire, the murderer of his brothers, had determined to put him to death, he fled for refuge, and found safety in a cloister. James Clement assassinated Henry the Third in the old castle of Saint Cloud, then the property of Jerome de Gondi. The heart of the unfortunate prince was deposited in the village church, and the place where it rests, was marked with the following inscription: *Passenger pity the fate of kings.* Lewis the Fourteenth purchased the domain, and gave it to his brother the duke of Orleans, who built the present castle; since his time, it has been a royal residence, it was enlarged by Marie Antoinette. Bonaparte, after his return from Egypt, assembled there the council of Five Hundred on the ninth of November 1799; the assembly was dissolved by an armed force on the same day, the eighteenth of Brumaire, as it is called in the annals of the revolution. The castle was Bonaparte's favourite residence, he embellished and furnished it with royal luxury; to improve the view from the principal apartment, an obelisk was raised, and a monument similar to the one erected at Athens by Lysicrates the sculptor, which antiquaries have surnamed the Lantern of Demosthenes. Rabelais rendered Meudon a place of celebrity before cardinal Lorraine built the castle that Lewis the Fourteenth purchased for the dauphin. The building rises on a hill, and the famous glass works are situated below it. The long burgh of Sevres extends to the village of Chaville; it contains more than four thousand inhabitants; the royal porcelain works are certainly not inferior to the finest in Europe.

Meudon.

Sevres.

The entrance into Versailles by the road from Paris might give one a favourable idea of a court-town, if the broad avenue were lined with regular buildings; the approach might thus be made to correspond with the magnificence of the castle. Neat houses are situated at the extremity of the avenue, and at no great distance from them, a large prison, of which the grated windows and iron doors may be seen from the triple entrance. Barracks front the private treasury of the king, where the assemblies of the states-general were held. The civil and commercial tribunals are nearly opposite the mansion house,

Versailles.

BOOK CXLVI.

Castle.

and the avenue terminates on the right and on the left at the royal stables. A broad walk surrounded with lofty trees extends from the stables to the castle, where two Corinthian porches protrude on each side of a brick building; such unsuitableness can only be excused by the filial veneration which induced Lewis the Fourteenth to preserve the old hunting seat of his father. The front on the side of the garden is wholly the work of the great king, still even there the palace is not without faults, the centre or body of the building is out of proportion, and the wings are too long. The grounds are laid out with admirable taste, a broad canal reaches to the verge of the horizon, groves are scattered in verdant lawns, plants more than four hundred years old, are preserved in the orangery, water issues from fountains in every variety of form, and jets rise above the highest trees. The largest Trianon is covered with marble and surrounded by woods that seem to realize the brilliant fictions of Tasso in the description of the palace of Armida; the other is nothing more than a simple pavilion. These two edifices indicate the character of the two kings by whom they were built; Lewis the Fourteenth, tired of his magnificent residence at Versailles, repaired to the first, which still retains an air of pomp and grandeur; Lewis the Fifteenth preferred the solitude of the second to the cares of a crown and the etiquette of a court, it was there he forgot the disasters which marked his reign.

Trianon.

Expense of the palace at Versailles.

The magnificence of the royal buildings at Versailles, has given rise to the common opinion that Lewis the Fourteenth, surprised at the vast sums expended on them, determined to conceal the amount from posterity, and committed the papers of Mansard to the flames. But Mirabeau, Volney and other writers thought themselves sufficiently informed on the subject to publish the results.* According to an extract of the expenses, that has been attributed to Mansard, and according to other documents that are preserved in the

* These results are as erroneous as they are different; Mirabeau, in his nineteenth letter to his constituents, estimates the expenses at twelve hundred millions of franks; Volney, in his Leçons sur l'Histoire, makes them amount to fourteen hundred millions of *livres tournois*, which he considers equal to 4,600,000,000 franks.

archives of the crown, we may arrive at the following conclusion: all the sums expended from 1664 to 1702 on the royal edifices, in laying out the grounds, in making the gardens, and even in building the two principal churches in the town, amounted to 95,800,000 livres which, according to the mean value of silver during the last thirty-eight years, is equivalent at present to 172,400,000 franks or nearly L.7,184,000.*

After a revolution which has lasted almost forty years, and which has changed the customs, manners and institutions of France, Versailles is again a court town; many nobles reside in it, the people are ignorant, idle and poor. But if there are few works or manufactories in the town, it may be partly attributed to its situation at a distance from every natural current of water. The population amounts only to one-third of what it was in 1790; although it has increased rapidly since the restoration, most of the broad and regular streets are still sombre and deserted. Versailles is not without schools and charitable institutions, there are several preparatory schools to a military education, a large college, in which lectures are delivered on geometry, mechanics, music and drawing; and a public library containing 50,000 volumes. The royal hospital is the most useful of the charitable institutions. The town was the birthplace of Lewis the Sixteenth, of the abbé de l'Epée, of Ducis, general Hoche and marshal Berthier. The octroi or the tax levied on provisions and other articles imported into the town, is not much less than L.20,000; the greatness of the sum may be partly attributed to the facility of communication; more than six hundred stage coaches proceed from the capital to the department of Seine and Oise, and the most of them pass through Versailles, which is visited by every stranger in Paris.†

* See the Tableau descriptif, historique et pittoresque de la ville, du chateau et du parc de Versailles, compris les deux Trianons, by M. Vaysse de Villars, 1827. Consult also the work entitled, Faits, calculs et observations sur la depense d'une des grandes administrations de l'etat a toutes les epoques depuis le regne de Louis XIV, et inclusivement jusqu' en 1825, by the count d'Hauterive, 1828.

† See the Aperçu topographique, physique, geologique, historique, et statistique du departement de Seine et Oise by M. J. J. R. Huot.

BOOK CXLVI.

Neighbourhood of Versailles.

The country round Versailles is surrounded with pleasant walks, romantic sites and industrious villages. The inhabitants of Villepreux manufacture shawls; Gregnon has been often visited by mineralogists on account of a calcareous stratum abounding in fossil shells, the lands in the neighbourhood were purchased by his majesty, who has lately presented them to an agricultural institution. The military school at Saint-Cyr meets in the royal abbey, a large edifice founded by Madame de Maintenon. Jouy, situated in a fruitful valley, is watered by an aqueduct; the industry of the inhabitants is confined to their print-fields; during the imperial government more than sixteen hundred workmen were employed, the number at present does not exceed three hundred.

Montfort-l'Amaury.

The neat town of Montfort-l'Amaury near the forest of Saint-Leger, is built on the declivity and the base of a hill, it is commanded by the ruins of an old fortress, in which the only turret that still remains, is adorned with Gothic sculptures. The town was the birthplace of Simon, count of Montfort, who in the beginning of the thirteenth century, rendered himself infamous by his cruelties in the crusade against the Albigenses.

Rambouillet.

The small town of Rambouillet is situated on the other side of the forest; during the imperial government it became the capital of a subprefecture, perhaps on account of a castle, which has nothing royal but the name. It is flanked with turrets, and one of them appears less ancient than the rest; on the whole, the style of the building resembles that which prevailed in the sixteenth century. Francis the First died in the castle of Rambouillet in the year 1549. The park is one of the finest in France, but there is nothing in the town, at all worthy of notice; the beauty of the former depends on varied views, verdant groves and limpid streams. Dourdan gives its name to a neighbouring forest, the town was formerly a stronghold, and the castle in the middle of it was built by Gontrand, king of Burgundy, in the sixth century. It contains two thousand five hundred inhabitants; it was the birthplace of La Bruyere.

Dourdan.

Etampes.

Etampes covers a considerable space in a fruitful valley;

it is watered by a small river that serves to turn several mills. It follows from different old deeds that the town must have been founded before the sixth century, indeed the appearance of the houses attests their antiquity. But Saclas, a village about two leagues from Etampes, is much more ancient; it rises on the site of *Salioclita*, a city mentioned in the itinerary of Antonine. The river of Essonne waters the small town of the same name, the inhabitants manufacture cotton and woollen stuffs; they possessed formerly a powder manufactory, but as many of the houses were demolished by an explosion, that branch of industry has been removed to Bouchet, a place near the confluence of the Juine and Essonne. Corbeil, the capital of a district, is not more than a mile from Essonne, it possesses several cotton and linen manufactories, and carries on a trade with Paris in grain and flour.

Corbeil.

Riches of the department.

The rich pastures in the department of Seine and Oise afford food to numerous flocks, and the same country abounds in corn and wine. The mineral substances, although not valuable, are useful; the gypsum furnishes the immense quantity of plaster that is consumed in the capital, and the quarries afford excellent stone. Several mineral springs might be mentioned, but the only one of any note, is that near Enghein in the valley of Montmorency.

Department of the Seine.

The department of Seine and Oise encompasses the department of Seine, in which Paris occupies the centre. When the Romans, under the command of Cæsar, arrived about fifty-five years before the vulgar era, at the mean and solitary city in the territory of the *Parisii*, which the barbarians called *Luthtouezy*, and their conquerors *Lutetia*, the houses or rather cottages were built of clay, and covered with straw, the country was poor, and the position was not considered favourable for a town. But the Parisii adopted readily the usages of civilized life, they were good mariners, and brave in war. Lutetia was gradually enlarged, it became the seat of a prefecture, and the temporary residence of some emperors, particularly of Julian, who styled it his *dear Lutetia*. The only buildings connected with that remote period, are the baths, which were

BOOK CXLVI.

attached to the imperial palace. The feeble Romans might have been aware of their danger at the approach of the Franks, but it was not foreseen that the city was to become the metropolis of these barbarians, and fourteen centuries afterwards, the capital of an empire as vast as it was of short duration, of an empire in which Rome itself was merely a provincial town.

Enlargement of Paris,

Paris was enlarged after Clovis chose it for his residence; pillaged several times by the Normans, it was encompassed with fortifications by the weak successors of Charlemagne; but the limits from north to south were first extended under the third dynasty, it was then divided into four parts or *quarters*, and surrounded by a wall which in a surface of six hundred and sixteen English acres, enclosed several villages beyond the boundaries that were first traced under the Carlovingians. Different streets may still serve to recal the names of these villages or burghs; the most remarkable were *Bourg-l'Abbé*, *Beau-Bourg* and *Bourg-Tiboud*, the name of the last has been applied to the street of Bourtibourg. Two forts which have been often rebuilt since the Roman conquest, defended the approaches to the city; the one was Great Chatelet on the right bank of the Seine, at the entrance to the Pont-au Change, the other or Little Chatelet guarded it on the left. Four large towers bounded the enclosure in the direction of the river; the Tournelle rose near a wooden bridge, which although since built of stone, retains its ancient name; another, erected on the opposite bank at the extremity of Old Temple Street, served also as a gate, it was first called *Porte Barbelle*, and afterwards Barbette. The tower and the gate of Nesle were built at one extremity of the present bridge of Arts, near the Mazarine library; a large tower on the other side defended the right bank of the Seine, it rose opposite the castle of the Louvre, then an old edifice beyond the walls, it was repaired or rebuilt by Philip Augustus.

By Charles the Sixth.

Charles the Sixth enlarged the boundary on the north, and divided Paris into sixteen quarters, which covered a surface of 1070 English acres. It was also extended in the same direction by Francis the First, the walls were traced

from the Palais-Royal along the streets of Fossés Montmartre and Neuve-Saint-Eustache to the gate of Saint Denis, and from that gate to the Bastille; the surface thus enclosed was little less than 1,167 English acres. The number was increased to fourteen hundred in consequence of new additions made by Henry the Fourth. Others were made on the north by Lewis the Thirteenth, they may be still traced from the bridge of Lewis the Sixteenth along the Royal Street and the Boulevards to the bridge of Austerlitz; but the former limit on the south was not changed. On the right bank of the Seine and within the boundaries, were the Louvre, the palace and garden of the Tuileries, the abbey of St Martin, the Temple and the house of Richelieu, then called the Palais-Cardinal; the last edifice having been left to Lewis the Thirteenth by his minister, became the residence of Ann of Austria, and the name was changed into that of Palais Royal, a name which it retained after Lewis the Fourteenth gave it to his brother, the duke of Orleans. The court of justice and the cathedral, of which the fronts were concealed by old buildings, the Sorbonne, founded by Robert de Sorbon, the chaplain of Saint Lewis, and rebuilt by Richelieu, the college of Cluny, that was completed in the thirteenth century, and the church of Saint Genevieve, or the burying place of Clovis and the shepherdess of Nanterre, were situated in the southern part of Paris. Convents and charitable institutions rose beyond the northern enclosure; the most remarkable were the pest-house of Saint Lazarus, founded in the eleventh century, the hospital of Saint-Lewis, built in 1607, and the abbey of Saint Anthony that was afterwards changed into an hospital. Near the walls on the south were the abbey Saint-Germain-des-Prés, of which the foundation dates from the time of Childebert the First, the church of Saint-Sulpice that was finished by Lewis the Fifteenth, the palace of Luxembourg, of which the foundation stone was laid by Mary of Medicis in 1615, the abbey of Val-de-Grace that was founded in 1645, the Garden of Plants and the house of correction, the former was begun in 1635, and the latter was finished in 1656.

By Henry the Fourth.

By Lewis the Thirteenth.

Paris was also enlarged by Lewis the Fourteenth, and

By Lewis the Fourteenth.

BOOK CXLVI.

the hospital of Invalids was comprehended within the enclosure; under the same reign the old ditches were filled up, the ramparts were demolished, and two triumphal arches were substituted for the gates of Saint Martin and Saint Denys. It appears indeed that at the accession of Lewis the Fifteenth, the capital covered a surface equal to 2740 acres. The village of Roule was included some years afterwards within the limits that were fixed in 1728, and the extent was thus increased to 3,244 acres. Lamps of the same sort as those that are now seen in the streets, were erected in the year 1766, but a hundred years before that period, Paris was lighted by means of lanterns. To obviate the inconvenience arising from crooked streets, a law was first passed in 1785, regulating the plan according to which they were to be built in future; five years afterwards a new wall was raised, the limits have not been since much extended; they enclose a space somewhat less than 8,400 acres.

By Lewis the Fifteenth.

Monuments of the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth

Having enumerated the principal additions made to Paris at different periods, we may mention the monuments and edifices by which it has been embellished from the accession of Lewis the Fourteenth to the present day. The Mazarin college, now the hall of the Institute,* the colonnade of the Louvre,† the Gobelins manufactory,‡ the Observatory,§ the Foundling hospital,‖ the hospital of Invalids,¶ the gates of Saint Denys** and Saint Martin,†† the Royal Bridge‡‡ and the edifices on the Place Vendome,§§ were raised during the reign of Lewis the Great.

Lewis the Fifteenth.

The monuments of the following reign are the Bourbon palace, at present the hall of the Chamber of deputies,‖‖ the portal of Saint Roche,¶¶ the massive fountain of Grenelle,*** the Military School,††† the new church of Saint Genevieve,‡‡‡ the corn market,§§§ the equestrian statue of Lewis the Fifteenth, the public buildings in the square that bears the name of the king,‖‖‖ Saint Martin's market,¶¶¶ and, lastly, the mint.****

Lewis the Sixteenth.

The embarrassed state of the finances did not prevent

* Begun in 1662. † In 1665. ‡ In 1666. § In 1667. ‖ In 1669. ¶ Begun in 1671, finished in 1706. ** In 1672. †† In 1674. ‡‡ In 1684. §§ From 1685 to 1701. ‖‖ Begun in 1722. ¶¶ In 1736. *** In 1739. ††† Begun in 1752. ‡‡‡ Although founded in 1757, the ceremony of laying the foundation stone did not take place until the year 1764. §§§ Begun in 1763, finished in 1767. ‖‖‖ In 1763. ¶¶¶ In 1765. **** In 1771.

Lewis the Sixteenth from raising several useful and elegant buildings: the college of France was completed, and the school of medicine was commenced.* The court of justice was embellished with a new front,† the Odeon was built for the representation of French comedies,‡ and the present Italian theatre for the comic opera.§ The magnificent front of the last building might have decorated one of the most frequented streets in Paris, but it was determined not to place it on a line with the minor theatres on the Boulevards. The stone galleries of the Palais-Royal were constructed some years afterwards by the duke of Orleans.‖ The bridge of Lewis the Sixteenth was begun and finished; the elegant fountain of the Innocents, a monument of the regeneration of art, was repaired,¶ and the French theatre adorned the street of Richelieu.** The limits of Paris were marked by fifty-five barriers,†† raised at a great expense and in bad taste; lastly, the theatre of Feydeau was built during the same reign.‡‡

Under the consular and imperial government.

It seemed as if Bonaparte was anxious to indemnify the Parisians for the loss of liberty by improving their city. The embellishments which he added to the capital in the short space of twelve years surpassed those of the three preceding reigns. The works of the period are the fine streets of La-Paix, Rivoli, Mont Thabor, Castiglione, and many others. The quays of Orsai, Debilly, Desaix, Morland, Catinat, Bignon, the Louvre, the Invalids, the City, the Conference and Tournelle were constructed. The bridges of Arts,§§ the City,‖‖ Austerlitz and Jena,¶¶ were successively erected; the canal of Ourcq facilitated the conveyance of goods, and thus increased the commerce of the capital.*** Twenty-four new fountains served to adorn and purify the streets: we cannot refrain from mentioning those on Chatelet place, Vaugirard street, the market of Saint Germain, the court of the Medical School, the boulevard of Bondi, and the fountain of the Elephant, the largest of them all, but it remains still in an unfinished state.

Quays.

Bridges.

* In 1774. † In 1776. ‡ In 1781. § In 1782. ‖ In 1786.
¶ From the year 1787 to 1791. ** From the year 1787 to 1790.
†† From 1786 to 1789. ‡‡ In 1790. §§ In 1804. ‖‖ In 1806.
¶¶ In 1813. *** In 1809.

BOOK CXLVI.

Eight covered markets were begun and finished; the old slaughter houses were demolished, and others were raised beyond the barriers, that the inhabitants might not be exposed to the disgusting spectacles, which until then were not uncommon in many parts of Paris.* Four spacious cemeteries were enclosed without the walls, and granaries of a great size were built on the site of the ancient arsenal.† The same period of despotism and glory was marked by the commencement or completion of different monuments. The colonnade of the Louvre was embellished and perfected, the works by which the same palace was to be united to the Tuileries, were begun.‡ A triumphal arch loaded with ornaments, in dimensions the same as the one erected to Septimius Severus at Rome, rose on the Carrousel to commemorate the Austrian campaign of 1805.§ A similar monument of colossal size crowns the entrance to the Elysian Fields.‖ The church of the Magdalen was enlarged,¶ and the present peristyle was built round the chamber of deputies.** A pillar after the model of the one raised to Antonine at Rome, covered with bronze basso-relievos, and surmounted by the colossal statue of its founder, adorned Vendome place.†† Lastly, the exchange, the most sumptuous edifice in Paris, was founded on a site, formerly encumbered with old houses.‡‡

Since the restoration.

The fall of the extraordinary man by whom these works were accomplished, the exhausted state of the finances after two years of invasion and defeats, interrupted, but did not prevent, the embellishments of the capital. The blessings of a long desired peace gave such an impulse to individual enterprise, that more workmen were employed than in the time of Napoleon. Gardens and fields were changed into streets, and villages rose beyond the gates. The mania of building became the disease of the rich and of speculators without capital; it was not until many of them were ruined, until whole districts or quarters were deserted, that their folly was discovered. Some works that had been

* They were begun in 1810, but they were not finished until after the restoration. † Begun in 1807. ‡ In 1809.
§ From 1806 to 1809. ‖ From 1806 to 1814; but it is still unfinished.
¶ 1807 to 1814. ** 1807. †† Finished in 1810. ‡‡ In 1808, continued to 1814.

long projected or begun, were after many interruptions continued; the granaries, the slaughter-houses, the markets of Saint Martin and Saint Germain were finished; the statues of Henry the Fourth and Lewis the Fourteenth were erected on the Pont-Neuf and the Place Victoire. A monument was raised to Lewis the Sixteenth by the city of Paris, and it was determined to place the statue of Lewis the Thirteenth on the Royal Square, not on account of any admiration for the prince, but because his statue had been there before.

Population.

Every successive addition made to Paris was in all probability rendered necessary by a corresponding increase in the population; but nothing like accurate information can be obtained concerning the number of inhabitants before the fourteenth century. It cannot be doubted that both before and after that early period, little or no attention was bestowed on a subject, to which political writers of the present day attach so much importance.

Under Philip the Fair.

It is difficult, however, to suppose with M. Dulaure, that Paris contained only forty-nine thousand inhabitants in the reign of Philip the Fair.* The chroniclers of the time assert that there were fifty thousand men capable of bearing arms, which indicates a population of more than a hundred and twenty thousand individuals. It may be allowed that chroniclers are not the best authority, but it should be recollected that the capital consisted then of thirty-four parishes, and it might be shown that the average number of inhabitants in each parish was at least equal to three thousand. If it were necessary to bring forward other arguments, it might be remarked that there were sixteen colleges in Paris in the year 1336,† that eight years afterwards a pestilential disease lasted some months, and while it was at its height, more than five hundred persons died daily.

Under Lewis the Eleventh.

The number of inhabitants must have been much greater

* M. J. A. Dulaure, Histoire civile, Physique et Morale de Paris, tom. iii, p. 281, third edition, 12mo.

† The colleges of Sorbonne, Boissy, Huban, Mignon, Chanac, Boncourt, Bourgogne, the Lombards, the Germans, Tours, Lisieux, Autun, Cambray, Aubusson, Tournay and Justin.

BOOK CXLVI.

in the following century, for a plague that began in 1418 and lasted three months, carried off a hundred thousand individuals. In the year 1467, Lewis the Eleventh reviewed the men between sixteen and sixty, capable of bearing arms, and their number amounted to more than sixty and less than eighty thousand, so that the population may be supposed greater than 180,000. If 25,000 students from foreign countries and different parts of France, then in Paris, be included, the total population was without doubt greater than 200,000 individuals.

Under Henry the Second.

The number of houses in Henry the Second's time amounted to 12,000, from which it may be inferred that the population was equal to 240,000.

Under Henry the Fourth.

When Henry the Fourth besieged Paris in a season of famine and devastation, there were in the town, exclusively of the suburbs, more than two hundred thousand persons.

Under Lewis the Fourteenth.

The total number of inhabitants amounted to 492,000 about the end of Lewis the Fourteenth's reign; since that period the population has always been progressive.*

Churches, religious houses, &c.

Paris contained before the revolution a hundred and sixty catholic churches or chapels; viz, fifty parish churches, ten others possessing the same privileges, twenty collegiate churches and eighty chapels of ease; there were besides eleven abbeys, three of which were inhabited by women, fifty-three convents and forty-six nunneries. It does not contain at present more than thirty-eight catholic churches; namely, twelve parish churches;

* The registers afford better means of determining the increase and fluctuations in the population since the accession of Lewis the Fifteenth: the following are some of the results.

In 1719	509,000
In 1762	576,000
In 1776	658,000
In 1785	685,000
In 1791	666,000
In 1798	640,000
In 1802	672,000
In 1815	714,000
In 1827	890,000

The remarkable decrease in the above series from the year 1791 to 1802, must be attributed to revolutionary troubles.

and twenty-six chapels of ease, thirty-five monasteries for women, four for men, and as many monkish seminaries. Six chapels belong to different sects; viz, three to calvinists, one to those of the Augsburg confession, one to the eastern Christians, and one to the Jews.

Scientific institutions, schools, &c.

There are nine public libraries, many scientific collections, others connected with the arts, schools of law, medicine and theology. It is foreign to our purpose to mention all the schools, seminaries or colleges in which the various departments of knowledge are taught; of these the polytechnic school is not the least important, and it may be remarked that the method of instruction which was first introduced there, has been since adopted in different countries. The number of private institutions amounts to thirty-six, of public schools to a hundred and thirty-five; there are twenty-three learned societies, independently of the Royal Institute, the most celebrated of them all. Much good has been effected by philanthropic societies, by benevolent institutions; knowledge has thus been communicated to those, who otherwise must have remained ignorant, the evils of poverty have thus been mitigated. As ostentation is not a pretext for the noble duty of relieving the poor, or mitigating human suffering, the neglect of it cannot be imputed to carelessness or indifference. The charitable institutions in Paris, the numbers that subscribe to them, the zeal and judgment with which they are managed, are the best proofs of progressive improvement, the best answers that can be given to the narrow-minded men, who have vainly attempted to calumniate the present generation.

Neighbourhood of Paris. Saint-Denis.

Paris is subdivided into twelve mayoralties, and the environs form the two subprefectures of Saint Denis and Sceaux. The small town of Saint Denis may be mentioned on account of an ancient Benedictine abbey, and also on account of a church, a Gothic building, perhaps more remarkable for lightness than any other in France, it was begun in the seventh century, and finished in 1181. The orphan daughters of the Legion of Honour are at present educated and maintained in the ancient abbey. A feeder of the Ourcq canal passes at the extremity of the town, and

BOOK CXLVI.

contributes to the trade of the inhabitants. Saint Denis is also a place of some importance on account of four fairs that are held in the course of the year; it is calculated that on an avarage L.62,500 worth of cloth, L.25,000 of linen, and L.16,000 of woollen stuffs are sold. More than ninety thousand sheep are bought at the fair of Landit, a neighbouring burgh.

Vincennes.

Vincennes is situated in the district of Sceaux; the old towers and the dungeon which were long used as a state prison, are built on the royal manor of Philip Augustus, they were begun by Philip of Valois, and finished by Charles the Fifth. The first of these kings changed the wood into a park by enclosing it with a wall, and it was under a venerable oak, which according to tradition existed at so late a period as the sixteenth century, that Saint Lewis administered justice. Lewis the Tenth, Charles the Fourth, Charles the Fifth, Charles the Ninth and cardinal Mazarin died in the castle of Vincennes. The village of Bercy on the banks of the Seine is the principal depot of the wines, brandy and oil that are consumed in the capital.

Arcueil.

The aqueduct of Arcueil is built on the site of the one that was raised by the emperor Julian, an ancient work of which some imposing ruins still remain.

Fontenay-aux-Roses.

The neat village of Fontenay-aux-Roses possessed the privilege of supplying the court and the parliament with roses, a privilege that accounts for its name. It was customary for the peers and magistrates to hold an assembly in the month of May, and each person received a bunch of flowers in which the number of roses was arranged according to the rank of the individual; but the ceremony gave rise to so many disputes about precedence that it was at last abolished. It is certain, however, that more roses are at present cultivated in Fontenay than in any other place round Paris.

Sceaux.

The burgh of Sceaux on the small river Bievre shares with Poissy the advantage of a cattle market for the supply of Paris. The luxury of the Parisians exerts a great influence in the surrounding districts, and village girls appear on Sundays in the same dress as the belles of the capital.

Department of Eure.

The department of Eure, formerly included in the ancient province of Normandy, is contiguous on the east

to Seine and Oise. A great many horses and the finest oxen that appear in the markets of Sceaux and Poissy, are reared on the pastures or artificial meadows in the department; the inhabitants manufacture a considerable quantity of corn, cloth and cotton stuffs. Several places are connected with historical events that are not uninteresting even in the present day: the troops of Charles the Bad, king of Navarre, were defeated between Evreux and Vernon by Duguesclin in 1364; sixty years afterwards the English gained a victory over Charles the Seventh in the neighbourhood of Verneuil; lastly, the army under the command of the duke of Mayenne was destroyed on the plains of Ivry by Henry the Fourth.

Vernon. Vernon rises on the left bank of the Seine, and a bridge of twenty-two arches serves as a communication between the town and the suburbs. The public records are preserved in an old tower, all that remains of the fortifications. Evreux. Evreux, a town built of wood, is situated in a fruitful valley, watered by the Iton. It is a place of great antiquity; excavations were made at different times, and many ruins have been discovered; indeed it cannot be doubted that it occupies the site of the Celtic city, originally called *Mediolanum*, and at a later period *Eburovices* by the Roman conquerors. The iron arches that support the bridge of Arts and the bridge of Austerlitz, were founded at the iron works near Conches, at no great distance from Evreux; the industrious inhabitants are casting at present the different parts of an iron steeple, which is to weigh 900,000 kilogrammes or 884 tons, it is intended to be placed on the cathedral of Rouen.

Other towns are situated in the country on the north of the Seine: Gisors contains three thousand inhabitants; the principal building is a church, of which the ornaments were sculptured by John Goujon. The old tower that rises on an eminence, was part of a castle once inhabited by queen Blanche. The road from Gisors traverses along a ridge on the left of the Great and Little Audely, two small towns which at present form only one. The Audelys. Nicolas Poussin was born in an adjoining hamlet; a monument has been erected to his memory at Little Audely,

BOOK CXLVI.

and near it are the ruins of a fortress which according to tradition was built by Richard Cœur-de-Lion.

Valley of Fleury.

The village of Fleury is situated in the middle of the valley through which the Andelle flows. The sinuous course of the small river, the manufactories at irregular distances, Charleval on one side, the hill of Deux-Amans on the other, the declivities covered with pastures, and the woods which crown their summits, render the valley as agreeable as any in Normandy. Charleval bore the name of Nogeon-sur-Andelle until the time that Charles the Ninth laid the foundation stone of a country seat, that was never finished, but different chambers in it were converted into dwellings for the peasantry. Romilly rises on the Andelle near its confluence with the Seine; the river puts in motion the works on which the importance of the town depends; more than three hundred persons are employed in making wire, kettles and different articles of brass or copper; it is believed that the weight of the products which issue every year from these works cannot be less than 900,000 kilogrammes.

Louviers.

Louviers on the left of the Eure may be seen from the heights that command Romilly; it is well known on account of numerous cloth manufactories in which two thousand workmen were employed forty years ago, and which furnish occupation at present to more than six thousand. The wealth and industry of the inhabitants have enabled them to adorn their town with several edifices, an elegant theatre and public walks. Pont-de-l'Arche, a place of fifteen hundred inhabitants, is situated below Louviers on the right bank of the Seine; it was built by Charles the Bald; the effects of the tide are perceptible below the walls.

The small town of Quillebeuf at the embouchure of the river, was originally called *Ericarville;* it was a strong place of some consequence before the fortifications were razed by Lewis the Thirteenth; it does not contain at present more than fifteen hundred persons. As the moving sands that are accumulated by the Seine, render it impracticable for merchant vessels to ascend to Rouen, their cargoes are transported in lighters from the harbour of Quillebeuf.

Neat villages are scattered in the country between the river and Pont-Audemer, they are surrounded by orchards and meadows. The time in which the last town was founded, cannot be exactly determined, it is known, however, that it was called after Audemer, a Frenchman, who built a bridge on the Rille in the thirteenth century. It is encompassed with walls and ditches, the houses are built of brick, the streets are straight and regular. Bernay on the south of Pont-Audemer may be mentioned as the capital of a subprefecture; the Charentonne, a small river, flows below its walls. It contains, at a certain season of the year not fewer than forty thousand persons, the most of whom repair to it on account of a fair, in which more horses are sold than in any other in France.

Pont-udemer. A

Bernay.

It would be tedious to enumerate all the manufactories and different works in the department; suffice it to say that they amount to fifteen hundred, that they furnish employment to thirty thousand persons, and that the value of their products exceeds 26,000,000 franks or L.1,083,000.

The Orne gives its name to a department, in which calcareous rocks, granite and others of an ancient date form high hills and narrow valleys covered with pastures or arable land. The people do not cultivate much corn, but they rear a great many horses and oxen. Linen, cotton and different manufactories furnish employment to great numbers; wealth is thus diffused among the four thousand inhabitants of Vimoutiers on the Vie, and among twenty thousand persons of both sexes in the neighbourhood. Argentan rises on the Orne, it is commanded by the ruins of a strong castle, old fortifications and ramparts long since changed into public walks; it carries on a trade in a particular kind of lace, which the French call *Point d'Alençon*. The village of Sante-Honarine-la-Guillaume has become more flourishing since granite quarries were worked in the vicinity; it contains at present two thousand inhabitants. The Rille flows near a lofty forest that bounds the department of Eure, and passes through the neat town of Aigle, a place that carries on a great trade in pins and needles; one of the manufactories is provided with machinery by which two thousand needles can be made in a

Department of Orne.

Argentan.

BOOK CXLVI.

Mortagne.

day. The straight and well built streets of Mortagne are situated on the declivity of a hill; the town may be considered the centre of a considerable trade in the coarse and fine linens that are exported to the colonies. Belesme stands on an eminence that commands the plain and forest of the same name; it is regularly and well-built, the inhabitants manufacture coarse linens and cotton stuffs.

Seez.

We had occasion to mention the *Saii* in the account of the Roman provinces in Gaul; the Orne waters Seez, the ancient *Saium*, their principal city, which was built before the conquest of Cæsar. The Normans destroyed it in the ninth century; Lewis the Young set fire to it in the twelfth, and it was taken in the fourteenth by the English, who razed the fortifications. It was a more important place before the Norman invasion than at present, it does not now contain five thousand inhabitants. The cathedral is an imposing Gothic edifice; the diocess is very ancient, Saint Latinian or the first bishop died about the beginning of the fifth century.

Alençon.

The distance from Seez to Alençon is not more than five leagues; few visit the last place without remarking the simple and elegant architecture of the prefect's residence, of the corn market, a circular building, and of the townhouse, in which the two towers are the remains of the castle that was inhabited by the dukes of Alençon. Marshal Matignon who had the courage to disobey the commands of government on Saint Bartholomew's day, the historian Mezeray, and the deputy Valazé were born in the town. Although less important than it once was, it carries on a greater trade in lace than at any former period; and it appears that more than two thousand persons are employed in embroidering and manufacturing muslin.

Dumfront.

Dumfront, an insignificant and ill-built town near the western extremity of the department, may be remarked for its position on a steep rock that is divided by a vertical fissure, the small river of Varennes flows below it. The industry of the inhabitants consists in making coarse linen and different stuffs; but it is the capital of a district in which the smallest villages have their manufactories. Some of these

villages are called burghs, they contain about three or four thousand inhabitants; we may mention four of them: Athis is noted for cloth and silk, Ferté Macé for cottons and ribbons, Flers for tools and snuff-boxes, Tinchebrai for iron works and paper mills.

Department of Manche.

The channel bounds the extensive coasts of the department into which we are about to enter. Metals, argil well adapted for porcelain, slate and granite quarries are worked on the hills; the plains are fruitful in corn and pastures, but the whole country is almost destitute of timber. Such are the principal products in a department ill provided with roads and other means of communication; it may excite surprise therefore that it is one of the most populous in France, but the inhabitants are laborious and well informed, they devote themselves to fishing, agriculture, commerce and manufacturing industry.

Avranches.

Mortain, the small capital of the most southern district, is encompassed with granite rocks; the inhabitants manufacture paper and earthen ware. Avranches, one of the most ancient Armorican cities, is situated on a hill at no great distance from the sea; it bore the Celtic name of *Ingena*, it was afterwards called *Abrincatæ*, and at a still later period, *Abrinca* or *Avrinca*. The early inhabitants, the *Abrincatæ* or *Avrincatæ*, were formerly settled in the country of *Avranchin*. The present cathedral dates from the twelfth century, but before that time Avranches was the capital of a diocess, and a place of importance, as a fortified town. The safe and convenient harbour of Granville was built in 1784; eight years afterwards the inhabitants defended themselves successfully against an attack of the English. The town contains a population of eight thousand souls, it is ill-built and encompassed with walls; most of the people are engaged in commerce, they equip many vessels for the coasting trade and cod fisheries.

Coutances.

Coutances is probably a place of as great antiquity as Avranches: it was the *Cosedia* of the Celts and the *Constantia-Castra* of the Romans; the country round it was formerly called Cotentin, a name by which it is still designated in most parts

BOOK CXLVI.

of Normandy. The Bulzard flows beneath the walls, and the remains of a Roman aqueduct may be seen in the fruitful meadows near the banks of the river. The town is the seat of a diocess; the cathedral may be compared with the finest Gothic edifices in France.

Cherbourg.

The works which were begun during the reign of Lewis the Sixteenth, continued under the imperial government, and almost neglected since 1813, have rendered Cherbourg an important place both as a strong town and a sea-port. Eight formidable redoubts guard the entrance, while three forts and a large battery are placed in such a manner as to defend the anchorage, of which the depth at low tide is not less than forty feet. It is enclosed by an embankment 3866 yards in length, 80 in breadth at the base, and 30 at the summit. Although the embankment was commenced in the reign of Lewis the Sixteenth, it is not yet finished, but so many difficulties have been already overcome, that it may be considered a gigantic undertaking.

It was necessary to construct a great many conical frames 69 feet in height, 60 in diameter at their summit, and 140 at their base; they were afterwards filled with stones, and let down into the water. The spaces between them were covered with loose stones, still the barrier was insufficient to resist the impetuosity of the waves, and the work was only accomplished by successive accumulations. The whole mass is formed by enormous blocks of granite and sandstone together with 40,000,000 cubic yards of loose stones. The former harbour of Cherbourg was merely adapted for merchant vessels, more than 50 ships of the line may ride at anchor in the present during the lowest tides. It is encompassed with storehouses and dockyards, in which the largest ships may be built; but the town is an assemblage of clumsy houses, of narrow and crooked streets; the only monument worthy of notice, is the one that was erected to commemorate the landing of the Duke de Berry in 1814. The temperature of Cherbourg is very mild relatively to the latitude; in winter the thermometer is always five degrees higher than at Paris, a fact which tends to confirm what has been already said concerning the influence of the sea in modifying climate. The proximity of Cherbourg to Cape

Hogue renders it very probable that it occupies the same position as the ancient *Corialum*. It bore the name of *Carasbur* in the tenth century; it was included at a later period in the appanage of Charles the Bad, who delivered it to the English; it was the last conquest made by Charles the Seventh. The English, having made themselves masters of the town in 1756, plundered the inhabitants, razed the fortifications, and destroyed the harbour. It was more fortunate in 1815, for the Prussians attacked it without success. Cape Hogue or Hougue, the *Caput Oga* of the ancients, is about six leagues on the south east of Cherbourg; it is mentioned in history on account of the naval engagement which took place between the French and English in 1692. Marshal Tourville had not more than forty-six ships, Admiral Russel commanded a fleet of more than ninety sail. The Frenchman fought gallantly during ten hours, and was at last completely defeated, but his science and courage extorted the admiration of his enemies.

Valognes is situated in a pleasant valley watered by the Merderet, at no great distance from *Alauna*, an ancient city now in ruins. Carentan, a place of 3000 inhabitants, is defended by a strong castle; it was formerly surrounded with fortifications that have fallen into decay. Saint Lo, the capital of the department, was the Celtic *Briovera*, which signifies *a bridge on the Vere* or *Vire*, the river that waters the town. *Saint Laudo*, who was born there, had the honour of giving his name to his native city; he lived during the reign of Clovis, and became bishop of Coutances. The ancient cathedral of Saint Lo is a light and graceful building, and the church of the Holy Cross is certainly the finest monument of Saxon architecture in France. The town was one of the most populous in Normandy, before the province was conquered by Edward the Third; it has risen into importance of late years, it carries on a trade in cotton manufactures and hardwares.

Saint Lo.

The ship *Calvados* formed part of the fleet which Philip the Second sent against England in 1583; it was wrecked on the rocks that extend to the distance of six leagues between the mouths of the Vire and the Orne. The same

Department of Calvados.

BOOK CXLVI.

rocks were afterwards called *Calvados*, and they have given their name to a maritime department; they form during high tides a flat surface several hundred yards in length, and about thirty in breadth; sometimes, however, they are wholly concealed by the ocean. Calvados is bounded on the side of the continent by the departments of Manche, Orne and Eure; it yields rich harvests, it abounds in cattle, it is well supplied with coal.

Isigny.

Isigny rises on the bay in which the Vire throws itself into the channel; it possesses a small harbour, and carries on a considerable trade in the produce of the neighbouring country. The town contains only 2000 inhabitants, and it sends annually more than 3,600,000 pounds of butter into different parts of France. The country between Isigny and Bayeux, a distance of seven leagues, is covered with orchards, rich pastures and fruitful fields. The last place was the ancient *Ararægenus* or *Baiocasses*, which was surrounded in the time of Cæsar with forests, and possessed a celebrated school under the direction of the Druids. A spacious street extends from one extremity of the town to the other, it forms an exception to the rest, which are for the most part ill-built. The cathedral, a Gothic edifice, is adorned with a magnificent portal, and surmounted by three lofty towers; but the exterior is not the only part that fixes the attention, it has a treasury in which there are several curiosities, among others, the tapestry worked by Queen Matilda, representing the exploits of William the Conqueror. Lace and porcelain are the principal articles in the trade of the town; it has given birth to the eloquent Alain Chartier and to Oliver Basselin, a lyric poet, celebrated as the inventor of the *Vau de Vire;* his lively songs were at first confined to the banks of the Vire, but having become fashionable at Paris, they were styled *vaudevilles*. Vire so called from the river that waters it, was gradually built round the castle which dates from the time of Philip Augustus. Condé sur Noireau, at the confluence of the Drouance and the Noireau, contains five thousand inhabitants, together with several cotton and linen manufactories.

Bayeux.

Falaise.

A hill rises in a district covered with woods, fruit trees, and pastures; the Anté, a small river, flows below it, and

Falaise, a Norman city, is built near the base. The town is encompassed with three suburbs; Guibray, one of them, might be sufficient to render it a place of celebrity, for two very important fairs are held there every year, the first begins on the tenth, and lasts to the twenty-fifth of August, the other continues eight days after the eighth of September; an immense number of horses are sold during the first fair, the second is set apart for the sale of cattle and different merchandise. In the same suburbs are situated the remains of a strong castle with a tower in a good state of preservation; it was the birthplace of William the Conqueror. An excellent road leads from the town to the capital of the department.

Caen.

It is vain to determine the time in which Caen was built; it does not appear to be very ancient, but the date of the foundation is unknown. It was formerly encompassed with walls and flanked with twenty towers: many of the streets are adorned with well built houses; the public buildings are imposing, and such is the excellent quality of the stone in the neighbouring quarries, that Caen may in time become one of the finest towns in France. The Royal Place forms a large square; the townhouse, a simple and elegant edifice, rises at one extremity, and a public walk extends round the centre, which is adorned with a bronze statue of Lewis the Fourteenth. The abbey church is finer in point of architecture than any in Caen, within it are contained the tombs of William the Conqueror by whom it was built, and of his wife Matilda. The town is chiefly important on account of an university, a botanical garden, a public library of forty thousand volumes, and a very valuable collection of natural history. It possesses also an academy of science and belles-lettres, Linnean, antiquarian and agricultural societies; the transactions which are published every year, attest the zeal and knowledge of the members. The celebrated Lamouroux, by whose premature death science sustained no ordinary loss, filled the chair of natural history in the university.* The town

* See the Notice sur la Vie et les travaux de J — V — Lamouroux by J. J. N. Huot, Annales des Sciences Naturelles.

BOOK CXLVI.

has given birth to Malherbe, Segrais, Malfilatre and Huet, bishop of Avranches. It stands in a fruitful and pleasant valley, at the confluence of the Odon and Orne; activity reigns in the small harbour, and a public walk, remarkable for its beauty, is bounded on one side by verdant meadows, on the other by the river. If it be added that the inhabitants are alike distinguished by their knowledge and industry, it cannot be wondered that the good effects of their example extend to most places in Normandy.

Lisieux.

The other towns in the department are comparatively insignificant; Lisieux is encompassed with ditches and old walls, it was formerly the capital of a diocess, in which the first bishop was Litarde, who flourished in the sixth century. There is reason to believe that it occupies the site of *Noviomagus*, a Celtic city, and it is certain that it was one of the places that the Romans called *Lixovium*. It carries on at present a considerable trade in linen, cotton stuffs and ribbons, a trade which furnishes employment to three thousand workmen. The inhabitants of Pont-l'Eveque are engaged in the same sort of industry, but it is thinly peopled and ill built.

Honfleur.

The heights above Honfleur are covered with lofty trees, but a vista reveals the rich country in the neighbourhood—the embouchure of the Seine, and the sea that bounds the horizon. The town itself is an irregular assemblage of dirty houses, and the most frequented church is built of wood. Two pharos direct vessels to the harbour; although it is small, the commercial intercourse between Honfleur and Havre, and the equipments necessary for the herring, cod and mackarel fisheries, render it the scene of much activity and confusion. But the port was once more flourishing than at present; some distinguished navigators were born there; it was from Honfleur that Chinot-Palmier and captain Gonneville departed in the sixteenth century on their voyages of discovery. The town is called *Honnefleu* in several old charts, a name which, according to an antiquary of some celebrity, signifies in northern languages a hamlet on a small gulf; the etymology, it must be admitted, accords with the position.*

* From *ham*, hamlet, and *fluet*, a small gulf. See Notice des Gaules by Valois.

The distance by sea from Honfleur to Havre is not more than three leagues, and steam vessels sail from the one place to the other in less than an hour. The first object that a stranger observes on entering the port of Havre, is the tower of Francis the First, an old building connected with the fortifications that were erected by the same prince; it serves at present as a station to watch the approach of ships. Three basins communicate with the harbour; it is defended by a citadel, and the whole town is surrounded with bastions. The streets in the Old Quarter are sufficiently regular, but the houses are ill built; the New Quarter extends along the basin of Ingouville, and it accords better with the commerce of the port, which has constantly increased since the peace. But the finest part of Havre fronts the iron works and the dock yards; a large court planted with trees forms a public walk, and well built quays or spacious streets traverse the town from the gate of Ingouville to the harbour. It may be remarked, however, that the public buildings correspond ill with the wealth of the inhabitants; the customhouse is a large edifice, the townhouse, the subprefecture, the exchange and the two churches are very ordinary in point of architecture. Many country houses are situated near the suburb of Ingouville which contains five thousand inhabitants. The town has produced few distinguished men, but it was the birthplace of Bernardin de Saint-Pierre. Two lighthouses are erected on the hill behind Havre at the extremity of the ridge that forms Cape Heve; they were built to indicate during the night the dangers of the coast.

A fruitful valley extends from the northern extremity of the same ridge to the sea, and terminates at Fecamp, a town of eight thousand inhabitants, it possesses several cotton manufactories, and equips a number of vessels for the cod fisheries. Another valley on the south of it, perhaps the most picturesque of any in the department, is watered by the Bolbec, a small river, that has given its name to an industrious town of seven thousand inhabitants, who carry on a trade in muslin and different manufactures. But before the river falls into the Seine, it passes through Lillebonne,

Lillebonne.

BOOK CXLVI.

a burgh that stands on the site of *Julio Bona*, a city of which the importance is attested by three Roman ways, and by recent excavations that have revealed the remains of a theatre and other ancient works.

Caudebec.

Caudebec was formerly the capital of Caux, a small country in which agriculture has attained a high degree of perfection, where every house, surrounded by trees of different sorts, contributes to adorn the different sites; indeed, the country watered by the Seine from Havre to Rouen, may vie with the vaunted banks of the Loire. Caudebec was a very flourishing town before the revocation of the edict of Nantes; it was almost ruined in consequence of that impolitic measure, and although it still possesses a convenient harbour, the population does not exceed three thousand souls. It is situated in the district of Yvetot, a small town of which the lords, before the reign of Lewis the Eleventh, were styled kings by their vassals.

Rouen.

Rouen is situated in a fine valley enclosed by chalk hills, and covered with verdant meadows or cultivated fields. The Seine flows through the same valley, and waters several islands; the ramparts of the town rise above the river, and the port is crowded with vessels of every nation. A modern bridge leads to the suburb of Saint Severe, part of which is formed by large barracks and an open space that is reserved for military exercises. The town may be enriched by the commerce and industry of the inhabitants, but many of the streets are disfigured by wooden houses, and almost all of them are crooked; those of a very recent date form the only exception. Although Rouen is not remarkable for modern edifices, it possesses several monuments of the middle ages; Saint-Ouen, an old church, equally worthy of notice for the architecture and the beauty of the painted windows, the cathedral of which the steeple was lately destroyed by fire, the linen market, an old and large building, and the court of justice, an elegant Gothic edifice are those perhaps which have been most admired; it may be remarked too, that the infirmary is larger than any other in France. The inhabitants are devoted to trade, but they possess a collection of valuable paintings, a library of forty thousand volumes, a good botanical gar-

den, schools of medicine and pharmacy, two theatres, an academy of sciences and belles-lettres, an agricultural and antiquarian society. It has produced some great men, among others Fontenelle and the two Corneilles, the modest house that the latter inhabited may still be seen in the street of La Pie.

The etymology of Ruen has given rise to different opinions, some antiquaries derive the name of the ancient capital of Normandy from the small river of Robec, the Latin *Rotobecum;* others believe it to have been so called from *Rotho*, an idol which they affirm, the *Veliocassi* adored. It might be difficult to form a correct opinion on the subject, but it is certain that *Rothomagus* was a very insignificant place in the time of Cæsar, the Roman general does not mention it, and the first notice of it appears in the geography of Ptolemy. It fell into the power of the English in 1419, they kept possession of it during twenty years. It was in 1431 that several prelates, rebels to their lawful king, deaf to the voice of patriotism, instruments in the hands of foreigners, judged and put to death the heroine who saved her country. A statue of Joan d'Arc, afterwards erected on the market place, proves that her memory is revered in the town where she was unjustly condemned.

Elbeuf is situated about four leagues on the south of Rouen, in a pleasant valley watered by the Seine; it is a place of considerable importance from cloth manufactories, which furnish employment to eight thousand workmen. Gournay carries on a great trade in butter; several mineral springs rise in the neighbourhood; the houses round one of them — the fountain of Jouvence, form a small town of three thousand five hundred inhabitants. Aumale, the ancient *Albermarle*, is an ill built town on the north of Jouvence; it is enclosed by large meadows, and watered by the Bresle, on which a bridge has been erected; the two columns at one extremity indicate the place where Henry the Fourth was wounded by a shot from an arquebuse during the battle that was fought against the troops of the League. No town of any consequence can be mentioned in the district of Neuf-Chatel, a district that

Elbeuf.

Gournay.

Aumale.

BOOK CXLVI.

supplies many parts of France with excellent cheese; leaving it on the right, we may proceed to Dieppe, a well-built city, in which there are six squares and not fewer than sixty-eight fountains, fed by a brick aqueduct more than a league in length. The harbour is safe and commodious, but the entrance is narrow; although the inhabitants clean it at regular intervals by opening the sluices of a basin which was built for the purpose, it is often encumbered with the gravel that the sea accumulates. The battle of Arques, in which Henry the Fourth defeated the duke of Mayenne was fought in the neighbourhood. The navigators that discovered Canada, and the first Frenchmen that founded commercial stations on the coasts of Africa, set sail from Dieppe.

The department of lower Seine is one of the most commercial in France; the products of the fisheries are equivalent to five millions of franks or to more than L.208,300; the value of the cotton manufactures amounts to thirty-five millions or nearly L,1,500,000; all the other manufactures have been estimated at seventy millions or L.3,125,000.* As a proof that agriculture is in a very improved state, it may be mentioned that not more than a sixteenth part of all the arable land remains fallow.

Department of Somme.

The chalky plains watered by the Somme and its feeders are covered with fruitful lands; corn, lint and hemp are cultivated, the inhabitants rear a great many cattle and sheep, a branch of industry that is neglected in many parts of France. The country, it must be admitted, is almost destitute of wood, but the vallies abound in peats, which make up in some measure for the deficiency of other combustibles. The small harbour of Saint Valery is situated at the mouth of the Somme; three or four hundred vessels enter it every year; it was there that William departed to conquer England with a fleet of eleven hundred sail, and a hundred thousand men. Abbeville rises on the same river about four leagues above Saint Valery; it is a strong town of the fourth class, it was fortified for the first time by Charlemagne. The houses are built of brick, but there are several fine old buildings, among others the church of

Abbeville.

* See the Annuaire Statistique de la Seine Inferiure.

Saint Vulfran, a Gothic edifice. The inhabitants boast of the poet Millevie, their townsman; some of them too have not forgotten that the chevalier de la Barre, a youth not more than fifteen years of age, was condemned at Abbeville to be beheaded, to have his right hand amputated, and his tongue torn from his body, because he sung licentious verses and remained uncovered during a religious procession.

Amiens. Amiens is situated at the distance of nine leagues above Abbeville; it bore in ancient times the name of *Samarobriva*, which signifies a bridge on the Somme. It was the capital of the *Ambiani*, and one of the places in Gaul, in which good weapons were made. It was the principal city in the kingdom of the Franks under Clodion; it is at present a strong town of the third class; it carries on a considerable trade, the manufactures are linens, cottons and velvet. The cathedral is considered a model of Gothic architecture, and the public library is not inferior to the one at Rouen. Amiens has produced many great men, perhaps the most remarkable are Peter the Hermit, who persuaded the faithful to undertake the first crusade, the marshal d'Estrées, Voiture, Ducange, Gresset and the astronomer Delambre. It was united to France in the reign of Lewis the Eleventh, but the Spaniards gained it by stratagem in the time of Henry the Fourth. Some soldiers, clad as peasants, conducted a cart loaded with straw and nuts, as soon as they entered the town, the cart was purposely upset; while the burgesses were gathering the nuts, the disguised soldiers put them to death, and delivered Amiens to their companions without the gates. It is not in such a way that strong places are now taken, but six months had hardly elapsed before it was again in the possession of the French. The people of Peronne boast that Peronne. their town was never conquered; they repelled in 1563 a numerous and warlike army under the command of Henry of Nassau. The ramparts are now planted with trees, or changed into walks which the Somme serves to adorn.

Montdidier. Montdidier is built on the summit of a hill above the small river Don; it need not be mentioned because it was the residence of French kings during the twelfth century,

BOOK CXLVI.

but because it is the capital of a subprefecture, and the birthplace of Parmentier. Doulens on the left bank of the Authie, is not a place of greater importance; it carries on, however, a considerable trade in the coarse linens, that are manufactured in the district. A double citadel adds greatly to its strength; it possesses a large cotton manufactory and several oil mills.

Department of Pas-de-Calais.

Boulonnais, Artois and part of Picardy make up the department which derives its name from the narrow branch of the sea that separates England and France. The soil is divided by a chain of hills into two regions, the southern and the northern. The first intersected by small vallies, slopes gently towards the banks of the Authie or the boundary between Pas de Calais and the department of Somme; the second inclines more perceptibly towards the north. Both regions are productive, the shores of the sea are covered with sandy hills or downs on which agriculture is making new conquests.

Montreuil.

Montreuil stands on a hill above the banks of the Canche; it was founded in the ninth century by the first count of Ponthieu; the houses are built of brick, and the town is defended by a citadel and ramparts. Hesdin is situated on the same river above Montreuil, it contains about four thousand inhabitants, it is encompassed with walls and ditches. But Boulogne must be considered a place of greater importance than either of the two last; it is also more ancient, arms and other articles evidently of Roman origin were discovered at so late a period as 1823. It was the Celtic *Gesoriacum*, a seaport of the *Morini*, whom Virgil calls the most remote inhabitants of the earth.

Extremique hominum *Morini*, Rhenusque bicornis.*

It was from the same harbour that the Roman fleets set sail to Great Britain; Constantine gave it at a later period the name of *Bolonia*, but the sea rose then to the highest part of the town, and rings to which the ancients used to attach their vessels, have been at different times discovered; the antiquity of the same quarter is attested by narrow, crooked and irregular streets;

* Virgil, Æneid. Lib. VIII. V. 727.

the low town, on the contrary, is built with great regularity, it was originally a small suburb. Although the harbour was enlarged by Napoleon, it is still difficult of access; vessels are embedded in ooze during the reflux of the tide, they are lifted by the flux which raises the waters to the height of fourteen feet. While Napoleon menaced England with an invasion, the army assembled on the coast, resolved to erect a marble monument to their chief; but it was not finished until the restoration, and the purpose for which it was intended, was of course changed, it now records the arrival of the Bourbons in France.

Calais. Calais at the northern extremity of the department, possesses several advantages, it is a strong town of the first class, it has a convenient, although a small and shallow port, it is encompassed with ramparts that form agreeable walks, the houses and streets are regular and well built. It may be remarked, on the other hand, that sand is constantly accumulating in the harbour, and the inhabitants have no other water than what is collected in cisterns. A tower of finished architecture serves as a belfry, is rises on the Place d'Armes near the large town-house. A column was erected on the port to commemorate the arrival of Lewis the Eighteenth in 1814. The coasts of England are seen from the pier, nay, it is said that Dover castle is also visible in clear weather. Calais, now so much frequented by strangers, and peopled by nine thousand individuals, was only a village in the thirteenth century, but it was so well fortified by Philip of France, count of Boulogne, that Edward the Third of England besieged it during thirteen months; the inhabitants did not capitulate until they were compelled to do so by famine, it was then that the six persons whose names history has recorded, presented themselves before an exasperated victor.

Guines, Ardres. A marshy country extends on the south of Calais to Guines, formerly a fortified city, and to the small town of Ardres, now watered by a canal to which it has given its name. It was in the same country that Francis the First and Henry the Eighth agreed to hold an interview in the year 1520, and the place where they met was decorated with so much magnificence that it still retains the name of the

BOOK CXLVI.

*Champ du Drap d'Or.** The marshes of Aa near Saint Omer enclose several small islands, the town is fortified and well built; it dates from the seventh century, it was the birthplace of Suger, abbot of Saint Denis, and minister to Lewis the Young. The neat and strong city of Aire about four leagues from Saint Omer, contains nine thousand inhabitants, it counts Malebranche in the number of its townsmen. Bethune is built on a rock, and the fortifications that defend it, were planned by Vauban. The small town of Lens may recal the victory of Condé, a victory that put an end in 1648 to the war between France and Austria. Saint Pol is visited for its mineral waters; it is the capital of a district.

Arras.

Arras, a strong town of the third class, rises on a plain surrounded by hills, and watered by the Scarpe and the Crinchon; it is divided into four parts, the high and low town, the city and the citadel. Houses built of freestone, squares or courts encompassed with arcades, a Gothic cathedral remarkable for its bold architecture, a large town-house in the same style, and spacious barracks render it one of the fine towns in France. Although not a place of great trade, it possesses some cotton and lace manufactories, beetroot sugar works and about twenty oil mills. It contains also a public library of thirty-four thousand volumes, a collection of paintings and antiquities, a botanical garden and two literary societies. It has given birth to several great and infamous men; in the one class may be mentioned Baudouin the historian, Lecluse the physician, and Palissot the botanist; in the other, Damien the fanatic, the two Robespierres and Joseph Lebon. Arras stands on the site of *Nemetacum* or *Nemetocena*, the capital of the *Atrebantes*; as it was taken by Cæsar, it must have been founded at least fifty years before the Christian era.

Department of Nord.

If the department in which the capital is situated be excepted, no other is so wealthy or so populous as the department of Nord; were the population diffused throughout the whole kingdom in the same ratio, France might contain more than 85,000,000 of inhabitants. The same

* The Field of the Cloth of Gold.

country is covered with fields, that produce in proportion twice as much as those in other departments; it is intersected by twice as many roads, and four times as many canals. It possesses the most abundant iron and coal mines; it contains the greatest number of populous towns and strong places; in short, it is the one in which the inhabitants are most enlightened and also most industrious.

Cambray.

The Scheldt is by no means a large river at Cambray, but the canal of Saint Quentin that crosses it, contributes greatly to the commerce of the town. The importance of linen and cambric, as articles of trade, is admitted by all, but it is not so generally known that Cambrai claims the honour of having first manufactured them. It is at present the capital of a subprefecture; as a place of war, it belongs to the second class. Antiquaries have shown that it is a very ancient town, it bears the name of *Camaracum* in the Theodosian table and the intinerary of Antonine. It possesses several fine buildings, of which the cathedral is not the least remarkable; the interior is adorned with the monument that was erected to Fenelon, who was both a native and an archbishop of Cambray. The streets are for the most part straight, but many of them are disfigured by the gables of old houses.

Landrecy.

Landrecy rises in the middle of a plain covered with meadows, and the Sambre, which is there navigable, divides it into two parts. Although it contains hardly 4000 inhabitants, the present fortifications enabled it to resist Charles the Fifth, who assembled an army of 50,000 men under the walls, and besieged it in vain during six months. Avesnes, a small fortified town, is watered by the Helpe; it is the residence of a subprefect; coal mines, extensive marble and slate quarries are worked in the district.

Maubeuge.

Maubeuge, a strong town of the third class, is situated on the Sambre below the last place, it contains 6000 inhabitants. Bavay on the west of it, is only remarkable for remains of antiquities; it bore the Latin name of *Bayacum*, it was an important town under Augustus, who embellished it with a circus, an aqueduct and other edifices. An inscription on an ancient pyramid informs us that three Roman roads,

BOOK CXLVI.

which were constructed by the same emperor, terminated in the market-place.

Valenciennes.

It has been said that Valenciennes, formerly the capital of Hainault, was founded by the emperor Valens, an error that can only be accounted for by the similitude of the two names; it is certain that Valenciennes was merely a village in the time of the early French kings. If it is at present one of the most important places in the kingdom, it may be attributed to its situation at the confluence of the Ronelle and the Scheldt. Some of the squares are very imposing, but the rest of the town is ill-built. The manner by which it fell into the power of Lewis the Fourteenth affords an instance that rash daring may be sometimes attended with more fortunate results than the wisest combinations or the most skilful plans. The enemy's patroles had advanced beyond the gates, some French recruits, impelled by the impetuosity of youth, pursued them and entered the town along with the fugitives; the general being informed of this unexpected event marched to their assistance, and a place which might have impeded the progress of the king during several months, was taken in less than two hours. Valenciennes is the native town of John Froissard, a priest, an historian and a poet; it is also the birth-place of Anthony Wateau, a painter whose works are distinguished by the grace and lightness of his touch. The cambric and linen manufactures render it at present one of the most industrious cities in France.

Anzin.

The wealth in the village of Anzin may be attributed not so much to glass works and manufactories as to the most extensive coal mines in France; there are sixteen pits, of which the depth varies from 600 to 900 feet. The total number of persons engaged in these works is not less than 16,000, and the annual products amount to 4,000,000 of hundred weights. The village of Famars, the *Fanum Martis* of the Romans, has risen into celebrity of late years; dissertations have been written on the ancient fortress of which the remains are still apparent; excavations were at different times undertaken, and many valuable objects of antiquity have been found. Denain about a league on the west of Valenciennes, was the place where Marshal

Famars.

Denain.

Villars gained a memorable victory over the imperialists and the Dutch in 1712. Condé, which during the revolution bore the name of *Nord-Libre*, contains 6000 inhabitants; it possesses a frequented harbour on the Scheldt; as a place of war, it belongs to the first class. Saint Amand, a town of 9000 inhabitants, carries on a great trade in lint that is mostly cultivated in the neighbouring country; it may be mentioned, too, on account of mineral springs which, although much frequented by the Romans, were seldom visited afterwards until the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth.

Condé.

Saint Amand.

According to Cæsar, Douai was one of the principal cities of the *Caluaci;* it stands in a situation favourable to commerce; the Scarpe waters it, communicates with the Scheldt by the canal of Sensée, and thus enables it to carry on a trade with the principal towns in the Netherlands. Old walls flanked with turrets form a large enclosure, indeed there are almost as many gardens as houses, and the streets are for the most part straight. The principal buildings are the townhouse, the church of Saint Peter, and an arsenal supposed to be the largest in France. John de Bologne, the celebrated sculptor to whom the Parisians are indebted for the statue of Henry the Fourth, was a native of Douai. Orchies about four leagues northwards, is the ancient *Origiacum*, according to Ptolemy, the only city of the *Atrebates*.

Douai.

Lille is situated in a very fruitful plain, it is watered by the Deule, a small navigable river, and by a canal that communicates with the sea. It was founded by Baudouin the Fourth, count of Flanders, in the beginning of the eleventh century. Seven large gates adorned with sculptures lead to the town; the fortifications are formidable, and it is said that the strong fortress was one of the first works of Vauban. The streets are broad, and the houses are well built; the finest edifices are the hospital, the townhouse and the corn-market. Roads and canals enable the inhabitants to carry on a great trade; the activity that prevails within the walls, renders Lille very different from most strong towns, and makes the stranger apt to forget the seven sieges it has supported at different epochs under

Lille.

BOOK CXLVI.

different masters, as well as the sad associations connected with fortresses and ramparts — the monuments of ambition and cruelty. Loos, a village almost at the gates of Lille, contains several manufactories and a large house of correction, in which more than fifteen hundred men and women are confined. A small harbour tends to facilitate the trade of Armentieres, a neat town of seven thousand seven hundred inhabitants, most of whom are employed in manufacturing lint, hemp and cotton. Quesnoy-sur-Deule is a place of trade, and Commines is noted for its ribbons; the population in each of them may amount to four or five thousand souls. Roubaix, a manufacturing town, and Turcoing, a large burgh that supplies different parts of France with woollen and cotton stuffs, may together contain fifteen or sixteen thousand inhabitants. All these places are situated on the north of Lille, and the most remote is not more than three or four leagues from it.

Armentieres.

Bailleul, Cassel, Merville and Estairs are the four principal towns in the fruitful district of Hazebrouck; the first is built on a height, the second was once fortified, it rises on a hill, and commands a view of the ocean and thirty-two towns; the third is situated in a marshy country, and the fourth contains six thousand inhabitants. Although the population of Hondtschoote does not exceed four thousand souls, it is a place of celebrity from the victory which the French gained over the English in 1793. Bergues, a place of importance as a corn market, was formerly surrounded by marshes, that have been partly drained; the canals of Dunkerque, of Upper and Lower Colme meet at the base of the hill on which it stands; the houses are regular, but all of them are built of brick. As a strong place it belongs to the third class, the possession of it, however, was considered a matter of so much consequence that it has been eight times taken and retaken, seven times sacked, and three times besieged without success; it does not contain more than six thousand inhabitants. Gravelines, a town of three thousand souls, was founded in 1160 by Henry, count of Flanders: it is on the whole well-built, but the marshes near the mouth of the Aa render it unhealthy. It was first fortified by Charles the Fifth; the present works

Hazebrouck.

Bergues.

Gravelines.

were erected by the chevalier Deville and the marshal de Vauban.

Dunkerque.

The road from Gravelines to Dunkerque extends along the sandy hills that rise on the sea shore. The last town was gradually built round a chapel, which was founded by Saint Eloi in the middle of these sandy downs.* Large, well-peopled and well-built, its position between two seas, and the proximity of England and the Netherlands, account for its past prosperity. Baudouin the Young, count of Flanders, conferred on it the rank and privileges of a city in the tenth century; since that time it has excited the jealousy or covetousness of several princes. It was burnt by the English in 1388; built anew, it fell successively into the power of Flanders, Spain and France. The Spaniards took it from the English, and the latter were expelled by the French. The treaty of Chateau-Cambresis put Spain in possession of it, but it was retaken by Conde in 1646. The Spaniards having made themselves masters of it again, the victory which Turenne gained at Dunes in 1658, rendered it an easy conquest to the French. It was afterwards ceded to the English; Lewis the Fourteenth purchased it from Charles the Second for five millions of franks, and rendered it impregnable; but by a shameful clause in the treaty of Utrecht, the same monarch was obliged to fill up the harbour and to destroy the fortifications; the works were rebuilt by Lewis the Fifteenth. The duke of York besieged it in 1793 without success, indeed he was compelled to leave his artillery in the hands of the enemy. The trade of Dunkerque has increased since 1816; a large sluice was lately constructed for the purpose of clearing the sand that obstructs the entrance into the harbour.

Every place of any importance in France has now been mentioned; we have adhered strictly to the political limits of the country, and endeavoured to avoid as much as possible the tedium arising from a long and often uniform description, to do so wholly was incompatible with the nature of the subject. We cannot, however, leave the kingdom without

* Dunkerque signifies in Flemish a church on the downs.

BOOK CXLVI.

taking a rapid survey of the roads, canals and finances. The causes and effects of public prosperity are more fully developed in the tables at the end of the chapter, from these the reader may be enabled to estimate the resources of France, as a commercial, agricultural and military nation.

Every one admits that numerous roads and canals have a powerful effect on the agriculture, commerce and industry of a country. We admire the order with which the vital functions are ramified by the aid of vessels and organs constructed so as to diffuse motion into every part of the individual; in the same manner the welfare of a state depends mainly on means of communication, by them life is made to circulate in every part of it. A few roads in France are well kept, but they form an exception, and it appears from the estimates of the ablest engineers, that it requires sixty seven millions of franks, or nearly L.2,800,000 to prevent them from becoming wholly useless.* They are equal in extent to eight millions of leagues;† but as sixteen thousand square leagues are unprovided with them, their total length must be doubled before the advantages of commerce can be extended throughout the kingdom. To complete the roads that are still unfinished, requires forty-four millions of franks or L.1,850,000. The sum of 111 millions or L.4,650,000 is therefore necessary for their improvement and completion. Twenty millions of franks or less than L.850,000 are annually expended on them at present, it is vain then to expect that new roads can be made, indeed a long period must elapse before the present are finished and repaired.

Roads.

Canals.

Ninety-six canals are mentioned in the statistics of France; of these sixty-four are finished, eighteen are in progress, and fourteen are projected. Such as are completed, and the others on which workmen are now employed, form an extent of six thousand and ninety-three

* See the work entitled Essais sur la construction des routes et des canaux et la legislation des travaux publiques, by M. Cordier, Inspecteur divisionnaire des Ponts et Chaussées.

† Each of these leagues is equal to four thousand metres; the metre is equal to 39.371 English inches.

English miles, an extent that must be more than doubled, before France can derive from her canals all the advantages which England does at present. The sums necessary for the improvement and extension of the roads and canals are immense, but the vast resources that France possesses, need not be overlooked. The taxes may be estimated at nine hundred and eighty millions of franks or L.41,333,340; Austria is the only state that has an equal population, Russia contains nearly twice the number of inhabitants, but in Russia the taxes are less than a half, and in Austria they do not amount to a third part of the above-mentioned sum. The finances are in a much more prosperous state than in England; for if the products of both kingdoms were applied to the extinction of national debt, it might be liquidated in the one in four years, it could not be cancelled in the other in thirteen.

Money.

The quantity of money in a country is a sign of wealth inasmuch as it corresponds generally with the circulation of commerce and industry; the money in flourishing states, according to political economists, ought to be equal to a fifth part of the products; but in France it exceeds it, for the products of agriculture and industry represent 8,800,000,000 franks, and the money in circulation amounts to more than two thousand millions. The kingdom, it has been shown, has abundant means of improvement, it is highly favoured by nature, the inhabitants are distinguished by their genius and industry.

STATISTICAL TABLES OF FRANCE.

Comparative tables of France, in which it is divided into regions, governments and departments.

NORTHERN REGION.

	Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The departments formed by them.
BOOK CXLVI.	1 FRENCH FLANDERS 2 ARTOIS	Lille Arras	Maritime Flanders, Walloon Flanders, Cambraisis, French Hainault.	Nord.
	3 PICARDY	Amiens	Amienais, Santerre, Vermandois, Thierache, Calaisis, Boulonnais, Ponthieu, Vimeux.	Pas de Calais, Somme.
	4 NORMANDY	Rouen	Caux, Bray, Norman Vexin, Roumois, Ouche, Lieuvin, Auge, Marches, Bessin, Bocage, Houlme, Cotentin, Avranchin.	Calvados, Eure, Manche, Orne, Lower Seine.
	5 ISLE-DE-FRANCE.	Paris	Beauvaisis, Laonnois, Soissonnais, French Vexin, Gouelle, Parisis, Valois, Mantais, Hurepoix, French Brie, French Gatinais.	Aisne, Oise, Seine, Seine and Oise, Seine and Marne.
	6 CHAMPAGNE	Troyes	Rethelais, Rhemois, Brie, Perthois, Vallage, Bassigny, Senonais.	Ardennes, Aube, Marne, Upper Marne.
	7 LORRAINE	Nancy	Messin, Toulois, Verdunois, Luxembourg, Principality of Bouillon, Barrois.	Meurthe, Meuse, Moselle, Vosges.

CENTRAL REGION.

	8 ORLEANAIS	Orleans	Beauce, Gatinais, Orleanais, Puyssage, Blaisois, Sologne.	Eure and Loire, Loiret, Loire and Cher.
	9 TOURAINE	Tours	—	Indre and Loire.

Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The departments formed by them.
10 BERRY	Bourges	—	Cher. Indre.
11 NIVERNAIS	Nevers	—	Nievre.
12 BOURBONNAIS	Moulins	—	Allier.
13 MARCHE	Gueret	—	Creuse.
14 LIMOUSIN	Limoges	—	Correze Upper Vienne.
15 AUVERGNE	Clermont	—	Cantal, Puy-de-Dome.
WESTERN REGION.			
16 MAINE	Mans	Perche	Mayenne, Sarthe.
17 ANJOU	Anger	Saumurois	Maine and Loire.
18 BRITTANY	Rennes	—	Cotes-du-Nord, Finistere, Ile and Vilaine, Lower Loire, Morbihan.
19 POITOU	Poitiers	—	Deux-Sevres, Vendee, Vienne.
20 AUNIS	Rochelle	—	Charente, Lower Charente.
21 SAINTONGE AND ANGUMOIS	Saintes	Brouageais	
EASTERN REGION.			
22 ALSACE	Strasburg	Sundtgau	Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine.
23 FRANCHE-COMTE	Besancon	Bailiwicks of Amont, Aval, Besancon, and Dole.	Doubs, Jura, Upper Saone.
24 BURGUNDY	Dijon	Auxerrois, Bailiwick of La Montagne, Auxois, Dijonnais, Autunais, Chalonnais, Charolais, Maconnais, Principality of Dombes, Bresse, Bugey, Gex and Valromey.	Ain, Cote-d'Or, Saone and Loire, Yonne.
25 LYONNAIS	Lyon	Forez, Beaujolais, Loire, Rhone.	
SOUTHERN REGION.			
26 LANQUEDOC	Toulouse	Gevandan, Velay; Vivarais,	Ardeche, Aude, Gard, Herault, Upper Garonne, Upper Loire, Lozere, Tarn.

BOOK CXLVI.	Ancient Provinces or Military Governments.	Capitals.	Divisions in each Government.	The departments formed by them.
	27 ROUSSILLON	Perpignan	Valespir, Capsir, French Cerdagne.	Eastern Pyrenees.
	28 COUNTY OF FOIX	Foix	Donezan.	Arriege.
	29 GUYENNE AND GASCONY	Bordeaux and Auch	Bordelais, Bazadois, Agenois, Perigord, Quercy Rouergue, Landes, Basque Chalosse, Condomois, Gabardan, Armagnac, Bigorre, Comminge, Couserans.	Aveyron, Dordogne, Gers, Gironde, Lot, Lot and Garonne, Landes, High Pyrenees, Tarn and Garonne.
	30 BEARN	Pau	Lower Navarre.	Low Pyrenees.
	31 DAUPHINY	Grenoble	Baronnies, Gapencais, Embrunais, Briancon-nais, Gresivaudan, Royanes, Tricastin, Valentinois, Diois, Viennois.	High Alps, Drome, Isere.
	32 PROVENCE	Aix		Low Alps, Bouches du Rhone, Var.
	Corsica*			Corsica.
	Comtat Venaisin† Comtat d'Avignon		Avignon	Vaucluse.

* The island was not included in any of the ancient provinces.

† They were ceded, as we have already remarked, by the papal government in 1791.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

Population, Surface, Extent of Roads and Inland Navigation. Value of Land in each Department.

Departments.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of departments, subprefectures and dioceses.*		Relative extent in metres to every square league.§		Number of hectares.‖		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vines.	Francs.	Centimes.	Francs.
Ain	341,628	295	1113	Bourg	8424	1408	779	65,100	18,000	25	75	16,076,000
				Belley†	5284							
				Gex	2647							
				Nantua	3684							
				Trevoux	3000							
Aisne	489,560	375	226	Laon	7354	1589	552	103,700	9400	35	65	23,994,000
				Chateau-Thierry	4345							
				Saint-Quentin	17,661							
				Soissons†	7483							
				Vervins	2687							
Allier	285,302	293	953	Moulins†	14,525	1493	685	123,000	12,000	15	—	13,130,000
				Gannat	5003							
				Palisse	2268							
				Mont Lucon	4567							

* The sign † denotes the capital of a diocess; ‡ denotes an archiepiscopal town.

‖ The Hectare is nearly equal to two English acres.

§ The metre is equal to 39.371 English inches.

TABLE — *Continued.*

Departments.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of departments, subprefectures and dioceses.		Relative extent in metres to every square league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vines.	Francs.	Centimes.	Francs.
ALPS, (LOW)	153,063	368	405	DIGNE†	3955	365	—	56,400	10,000	5	99	7,745,000
				Barcelonette	1759							
				Castellane	930							
				Forcalquier	2133							
				Sisteron	3920							
ALPS, (HIGH)	125,329	275	441	GAP†	7015	1213	—	72,300	7000	6	20	5,234,000
				Briançon	2835							
				Embrum	2300							
ARDECHE	328,419	277	1120	PRIVAS	4199	1394	498	28,800	16,000	19	48	13,210,000
				Viviers†								
				Argentiere	2797							
				Tournon	3606							
ARDENNES	281,624	256	1043	MEZIERES	4159	1261	449	155,900	2500	16	93	11,234,000
				Rethel	6147							
				Rocroy	3500							
				Sedan	12,608							
				VOUZIERES	1880							
ARIEGE	247,932	287	817	Foix	4958	981	21	57,500	16,200	15	20	9,841,000
				PAMIERS†	6246							
				Saint-Girons	4450							
AUBE	241,762	306	752	TROYES†	25,587	1223	224	84,500	21,000	21	05	27,472,515
				Arcis sur Aube	2656							
				Bar-sur-Aube	3758							
				Bar-sur-Seine	2112							
				Nogent-sur-Seine	3325							

Aude	265,991	319	794	Carcassone†	17,755	906	439	56,300	35,000	23	67	17,387,000
				Castelnaudary	9989							
				Narbonne	10,097							
Aveyron	350,014	445	762	Rhodez†	7747	1058	18	59,600	20,000	14	57	12,943,000
				Espalion	2350							
				Milhau	8582							
				Sainte Afrique	6406							
				Villefranche	9521							
Bouches du-Rhone	326,302	256	1225	Marseilles†	115,943	953	625	41,000	26,500	26	77	23,588,000
				Aix‡	23,132							
				Arles	19,869							
Calvados	500,965	281	1749	Caen	38,161	1376	380	32,800	—	55	38	35,503,000
				Bayeux†	10,060							
				Falaise	10,303							
				Lisieux	10,706							
				Pont-l'Eveque	2092							
				Vire	8116							
Cantal	262,013	274	911	Aurillac	9576	1345	—	29,800	240	15	38	10,062,000
				Mauriac	2455							
				Murat	2452							
				Saint-Flour†	6640							
Charente	353,653	280	1107	Angoulême†	15,306	1023	223	22,100	66,500	26	93	17,906,000
				Barbezieux	3092							
				Cognac	3017							
				Confolens	2213							
				Ruffec	2657							
Lower Charente	424,147	307	1333	Saintes	10,300	1306	896	38,100	90,600	30	37	22,637,000
				Ionsac	2501							
				Marennes	4588							
				Rochefort	12,909							
				Rochelle†	11,073							
				St Jean d'Angely	5766							
Cher	248,589	369	665	Bourges‡	19,500	848	389	15,000	12,000	12	74	9,985,000
				Saint-Amard	5923							
				Sancerre	3103							

TABLE — *Continued.*

Departments.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures, and Dioceses.		Relative extent in metres to every square league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vines.	Francs.	Centimes.	Francs.
Correze	284,882	273	940	Tulle†	8479	866	—	13,400	20,000	12	69	7,715,000
				Brive	7211							
				Ussel	2551							
Corsica	185,079	495	376	Ajaccio†	7658	—	—	225,000	9000	—	—	2,635,000
				Bastia	9527							
				Calvi	1175							
				Corté	2841							
				Sartene	2137							
Cote-d'Or	370,943	440	814	Dijon†	23,845	1468	182	256,000	24,000	24	60	25,829,000
				Beaune	9366							
				Chatillon-sur-Seine	3986							
				Semur	4220							
Cotes-du Nord	581,684	375	1470	Saint-Brieuc†	9963	1043	149	19,000	—	22	68	19,258,000
				Dinan	7175							
				Guingamp	5919							
				Lanion	5269							
				Loudeac	7033							
Creuse	252,932	269	925	Gueret	3448	953	—	39,000	—	10	36	6,812,000
				Aubusson	4136							
				Bourganeuf	1687							
				Boussac	757							
Dordogne	464,074	476	953	Perigueux†	8588	695	435	67,500	72,000	20	51	21,327,000
				Bergerac	8412							
				Nontron	1902							
				Riberac	3604							
				Sarlat	5573							

Doubs	254,312	276	878	Besançon‡	28,795	1038	362	113,300	8000	20	99	—
				Baume	2235							
				Pontarlier	4549							
				Montbelliard	4605							
Drome	285,791	336	824	Valence†	10,283	818	479	92,500	19,000	17	75	12,813,000
				Die	3187							
				Montelimar	7589							
				Noyons	2744							
Eure	421,665	298	1418	Evreux†	9729	1396	876	97,800	18,000	40	43	29,741,000
				Andelys	3460							
				Bernay	5738							
				Louviers	9242							
				Pont-Audemer	5398							
Eure and Loir	277,782	304	868	Chartres†	13,703	1201	99	45,000	7000	31	01	19,419,000
				Chateau-Dun	6452							
				Dreux	6247							
				Nogent-le-Rotrou	6658							
Finistere	502,851	350	1376	Quimper†	10,032	1142	143	12,700	—	19	80	15,328,000
				Brest	26,655							
				Chateau Lin	2426							
				Morlaix	9761							
				Quimperlé	4724							
Gard	347,550	303	1103	Nimes†	39,068	1636	346	81,300	100,000	26	30	20,656,000
				Alais	10,252							
				Usez	5622							
				Vigan	4246							
Garonne (Upper)	407,016	339	1153	Toulouse‡	55,319	943	498	48,300	57,300	30	42	22,448,000
				Muret	3301							
				Saint Gaudens	5629							
				Villefrance	2515							
Gers	307,601	311	967	Auch‡	10,844	1336	—	11,400	74,000	22	09	16,415,000
				Condom	4149							
				Lectoure	3104							
				Lombez	2243							
				Mirande	2243							

TABLE — *Continued.*

Departments.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures, and Dioceses.		Relative extent in metres to every square league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vines.	Francs.	Centimes.	Francs.
GIRONDE	538,151	517	1010	BORDEAUX‡	93,549	699	550	85,600	110,000	31	72	39,907,000
				Bazas	1903							
				Blaye	2881							
				Reole	2600							
				Lesparre	950							
				Libourne	8943							
HERAULT	339,560	315	1029	MONTPELIER†	35,842	1176	70	70,400	75,000	27	17	21,580,000
				Beziers	16,515							
				Lodeve	9842							
				Saint-Pons	6121							
ILLE and VILAINE	553,453	321	1661	RENNES†	29,377	1956	181	20,000	306	26	40	19,477,000
				Fougeres	7880							
				Montfort-sur-Meu	1316							
				Redon	2998							
				Saint-Malo	9838							
				Vitré	9085							
INDRE	237,628	354	649	CHATEAUROUX	11,010	1056	—	102,000	14,000	12	22	9,944,000
				Blanc	4642							
				Issoudun	11,223							
				Chatre	4272							
INDRE and LOIRE	290,160	321	879	TOURS‡	20,920	905	1058	73,600	36,000		18	14,978,000
				Chinon	4406							
				Loches	3500							
ISERE	525,984	420	1204	GRENOBLE†	22,149	1135	381	130,700	22,000	24	45	24,134,000
				La Tour du Pin	1770							

				Saint Marcellin	2540							
				Vienne	13,780							
Jura	310,282	254	1160	Lons le Saunier	7864	1294	—	135,000	16,000	17	24	15,351,000
				Dole	9847							
				Poligny	5555							
				Saint Claude†	5533							
Landes	265,309	459	558	Mont de Marsan	3088	911	311	127,000	19,500	6	25	7,537,000
				Dax	5045							
				Saint Sever	2604							
				Aire†	—							
Loire and Cher	230,666	319	708	Blois†	11,337	690	362	66,000	28,000	17	15	11,721,000
				Romorantin	6820							
				Vendome	6805							
Loire	369,298	234	1471	Montbrison	5156	950	227	36,400	18,000	24	90	14,368,000
				Rouane	8916							
				Saint Etienne	30,615							
Loire (High)	285,673	250	1105	Puy†	14,998	1162	80	36,400	13,000	18	59	10,400,000
				Brioude	5262							
				Yessengeaus	6908							
Loire (Low)	457,090	308	1405	Nantes	71,739	1563	751	37,400	45,000	29	89	18,904,000
				Ancenis	3145							
				Chateaubriant	2145							
				Paimbeuf	3646							
				Savenay	1845							
Loiret	304,228	356	818	Orleans	40,340	1158	764	95,700	39,000	24	12	17,516,000
				Gien	5149							
				Montargis	6653							
				Pithiviers	4012							
Lot	280,515	263	1046	Cahors†	12,413	839	628	23,000	47,000	18	57	11,306,000
				Figeac	4790							
				Gourdon	5990							
Lot and Garonne	336,886	242	1363	Agen†	11,971	1774	813	26,000	60,000	34	60	20,943,000
				Marmande	4160							
				Nerac	3418							
				Villeneuve d'Agen	9495							

TABLE — *Continued.*

Departments.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures, and Diocesses.		Relative extent in metres to every square league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vines.	Franks.	Centimes.	Franks.
LOZERE	138,778	257	521	MENDE†	5445	1430	—	21,600	—	10	94	5,904,000
				Florac	1962							
				Marvejols	3370							
MAINE and LOIRE	458,674	365	1213	ANGERS†	29,978	1086	764	43,200	35,000	28	61	23,979,000
				Baugé	3400							
				Beaupreau	2964							
				Saumur	10,314							
				Segré	909							
MANCHE	611,206	304	1951	SAINT LO	8509	1168	407	16,300	—	40	59	31,813,000
				Avranches	6966							
				Cherburg	17,066							
				Coutances†	9037							
				Mortain	2715							
				Valogne	6955							
MARNE	325,045	410	738	CHALONS	12,419	1221	459	81,600	20,600	20	16	16,290,000
				Epernay	5080							
				Reims‡	34,862							
				Sainte Menehoult	2933							
				Vitry-le-Francais	7164							
MARNE (High)	244,823	315	737	CHAUMONT	6027	1050	318	215,900	17,500	16	93	13,652,000
				Langres†	7180							
				Vassy	2345							
MAYENNE	354,138	261	1314	LAVAL	15,840	981	172	25,800	600	24	78	13,093,000
				Chateau-Gontier	5946							
				Mayenne	9799							

				Saint Marcellin	2540							
				Vienne	13,780							
Jura	310,282	254	1160	Lons le Saunier	7864	1294	—	135,000	16,000	17	24	15,351,000
				Dole	9847							
				Poligny	5555							
				Saint Claude†	5533							
Landes	265,309	459	558	Mont de Marsan	3088	911	311	127,000	19,500	6	25	7,537,000
				Dax	5045							
				Saint Sever	2604							
				Aire†	—							
Loire and Cher	230,666	319	708	Blois†	11,337	690	362	66,000	28,000	17	15	11,721,000
				Romorantin	6820							
				Vendome	6805							
Loire	369,298	234	1471	Montbrison	5156	950	227	36,400	18,000	24	90	14,368,000
				Rouane	8916							
				Saint Etienne	30,615							
Loire (High)	285,673	250	1105	Puy†	14,998	1162	80	36,400	13,000	18	59	10,400,000
				Brioude	5262							
				Yessengeaus	6908							
Loire (Low)	457,090	308	1405	Nantes	71,739	1563	751	37,400	45,000	29	89	18,904,000
				Ancenis	3145							
				Chateaubriant	2145							
				Paimbeuf	3646							
				Savenay	1845							
Loiret	304,228	356	818	Orleans	40,340	1158	764	95,700	39,000	24	12	17,516,000
				Gien	5149							
				Montargis	6653							
				Pithiviers	4012							
Lot	280,515	263	1046	Cahors†	12,413	839	628	23,000	47,000	18	57	11,306,000
				Figeac	4790							
				Gourdon	5990							
Lot and Garonne	336,886	242	1363	Agen†	11,971	1774	813	26,000	60,000	34	60	20,943,000
				Marmande	4160							
				Nerac	3418							
				Villeneuve d'Agen	9495							

TABLE — *Continued.*

Departments.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures, and Dioceses.		Relative extent in metres to every square league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vines.	Francs.	Centimes.	Francs.
Pas-de-Calais	648,969	338	1852	Arras†	22,173	2006	479	46,600	—	45	43	32,305,000
				Bethune	6830							
				Boulogne	19,314							
				Montreuil	4194							
				Saint Omer	19,019							
				Saint Pol	3556							
Puy de Dome	566,573	409	1353	Clermont Ferrant†	30,010	995	220	54,200	22,000	24	28	22,428,000
				Issoire	3649							
				Riom	6095							
				Thiers	11,613							
Pyrenees (Low)	412,469	386	1036	Pau	11,761	1824	189	11,200	16,700	16	79	15,392,000
				Bayonne†	13,498							
				Mauleon	1054							
				Oleron	6423							
				Orthes	6834							
Pyrenees (High)	222,059	233	907	Tarbes†	8712	1216	—	67,500	11,000	13	85	7,769,000
				Argeles	878							
				Bagneres	7037							
Pyrenees (Eastern)	151,372	205	699	Perpignan†	15,357	1569	—	47,200	53,500	16	30	7,351,000
				Ceret	3078							
				Prades	2795							
Rhine (Low)	535,467	210	2384	Strasburg†	49,708	1565	958	156,600	14,400	42	38	246,920
				Saverne	4993							
				Schelestat	9600							
				Weissemburg	6146							

Meurthe	403,038	282	1350	Nancy†	29,122	1521	270	218,900	13,500	24	12	17,500,000
				Luneville	12,378							
				Sarrebourg	1955							
				Toul	7507							
Meuse	306,339	305	958	Bar-le-Duc	12,520	1679	164	180,000	15,000	22	—	14,281,000
				Commercy	3714							
				Montmedy	2146							
				Verdun†	9882							
Morbihan	427,453	360	1157	Vannes†	11,289	1605	489	18,300	600	20	—	14,741,000
				Pontivy	7770							
				Lorient	15,310							
				Ploermel	5984							
Moselle	409,135	339	1110	Metz†	45,276	1222	280	132,000	4,500	25	63	16,528,000
				Briey	1717							
				Sarguemines	3608							
				Thionville	5821							
Nievre	271,777	334	772	Nevers†	15,782	1122	—	188,000	12,000	16	85	12,050,000
				Chateau-Chinon	2214							
				Clamecy	5447							
				Cosne	5973							
Nord	962,648	283	3188	Lille	69,860	2061	205	57,000	—	69	56	44,206,000
				Avesne	3311							
				Cambray†	17,031							
				Douay	19,880							
				Dunkerque	24,517							
				Hazebrouck	7644							
				Valenciennes	19,841							
Oise	385,124	297	1332	Beauvais†	12,865	1787	374	83,300	3,500	39	80	25,906,000
				Clermont	2406							
				Compiegne	7362							
				Senlis	5049							
Orne	434,379	283	1492	Alençon	14,071	975	—	58,900	—	29	22	22,096,000
				Sees†	—							
				Argentan	6044							
				Domfront	1670							
				Mortagne	5405							

TABLE — *Continued.*

Departments.	Population.	Surface in geographical square leagues.	Number of inhabitants to each square league.	Capitals of Departments, Subprefectures, and Dioceses.		Relative extent in metres to every square league.		Number of hectares.		Mean annual value of the hectare.		Revenue of the land.
				Names.	Population.	Roads.	Inland Navigation.	Woods.	Vines.	Franks.	Centimes.	Franks.
SEVRES (Deux)	288,260	296	954	NIORT	15,799	763	162	39,200	20,000	23	87	13,849,000
				Bressuire	1344							
				Melle	2228							
				Parthenay	4184							
SOMME	526,282	305	1667	AMIENS†	42,032	1907	367	55,000	—	45	38	29,064,000
				Abbeville	19,520							
				Doulens	3960							
				Mont Didier	3730							
				Peronne	3777							
TARN	327,655	290	1083	ALBY‡	10,993	1072	248	41,900	22,000	24	97	15,562,000
				Castres	15,663							
				Gaillac	7476							
				Lavaur	7037							
TARN and GARONNE	241,586	114	2083	MONTAUBAN†	25,466	2296	1093	11,300	33,000	38	76	16,453,000
				Castel-Sarrasin	7067							
				Moissac	10,115							
VAR	311,095	368	828	DRAGUIGNAN	8035	1102	—	111,700	42,000	27	17	22,000,000
				Frejus†	—							
				Brignolles	6176							
				Grasse	12,716							
				Toulon	30,171							
VAUCLUSE	233,048	167	1342	AVIGNON‡	31,180	457	299	74,100	45,000	29	78	13,614,000
				Apt	5433							
				Carpentras	9756							
				Orange	8864							

VENDEE	322,826	341	928	BOURBON-VENDEE	3129	974	252	19,600	16,000	19	80	15,607,000
				Fontenay	7493							
				Lucon†	——							
				Sables d'Olonne	4783							
VIENNE	267,670	349	74	POITIERS†	21,563	1008	122	57,500	33,000	15	30	12,082,000
				Chatellerault	9241							
				Livray	2192							
				Loudun	5044							
				Montmorillon	3539							
VIENNE (Upper)	276,351	290	946	LIMOGES†	25,612	1062	—	21,600	3000	12	85	8,189,000
				Bellac	3400							
				Rochechouart	1550							
				Saint-Yrieix	2740							
VOSGES	379,839	552	1420	EPINAL	7951	1051	—	216,400	4000	18	66	14,335,000
				Mirecourt	5608							
				Neufchateau	3667							
				Remiremont	4148							
				Saint-Die†	7339							
YONNE	342,116	364	915	AUXERRE	12,348	1198	494	156,000	36,000	20	57	17,520,000
				Avallon	5261							
				Joigny	5263							
				Sens‡	8685							
				Tonerre	3650							

STATISTICAL TABLES.

Criminal Courts and Schools. The number of Criminals and Scholars relative to the Population,—according to the Tables of M.M. Balbi *and* Guerry.

Seats of the Criminal Courts.	Departments subject to their jurisdiction.	Population.	Criminals.—Those condemned for crimes against			
			The person, one out of every	Property, one out of every	Both against property and person, one out of every	Scholars, (Males) one out of every
Agen	Lot and Garonne, Lot, Gers	925,000	29,839	17,130	10,882	55
Amiens	Somme, Oise, Aisne	1,401,000	72,466	10,061	9596	12
Angers	Mayenne, Sarthe, Maine and Loire	1,259,000	51,740	11,694	9536	58
Aix	Low Alps, Bouches du Rhone, Var	790,000	23,700	10,727	7383	50
Bastia	Corsica	185,000	2968	9098	2237	50
Besancon	Upper Saone, Doubs, Jura	892,000	39,940	11,066	8663	12
Bordeaux	Charente, Dordogne, Gironde	1,356,000	43,277	5048	11,115	55
Bourges	Indre, Cher, Nievre	758,000	18,488	14,125	11,147	67
Caen	Calvados, Manche, Orne	1,547,000	48,858	9675	8085	29
Colmar	Lower Rhine, Upper Rhine	944,000	21,456	7613	5608	14
Dijon	Upper Marne, Cote d'Or, Saone and Loire	1,132,000	45,892	12,767	9988	13
Douai	Nord, Pas de Calais	1,606,000	46,327	7296	6298	15
Grenoble	Isere, Drome, High Alps	937,000	26,271	11,244	7874	20
Limoges	Upper Vienne, Creuse, Correze	814,000	59,771	20,183	15,654	89
Lyon	Loire, Rhone, Ain	1,114,000	41,259	11,367	8912	28
Metz	Ardennes, Moselle	691,000	34,435	9092	7148	13
Montpelier	Aude, Aveyron, Herault, Eastern Pyrenees	1,107,000	21,563	15,514	9024	34
Nancy	Meurthe, Meuse, Vosges	1,089,000	36,300	10,404	8094	12
Nimes	Ardeche, Gard, Lozere, Vaucluse	1,048,000	18,027	13,941	784	30
Orleans	Indre and Loiret, Loiret, Loir-and-Cher	825,000	33,000	8594	6818	36
Paris	Aube, Eure and Loir, Marne, Seine, Seine-and-Marne, Seine-and-Oise, Yonne	2,967,000	57,057	4075	3563	15
Pau	Lower Pyrenees, High Pyrenees, Landes	900,000	37,000	12,736	9507	19
Poitiers	Lower Charente, Deux, Sevres, Vendée, Vienne	1,303,000	44,931	8966	7460	42
Rennes	Cotes du Nord, Finistere, Ile and Vilaine, Lower Loire, Morbihan	2,523,000	37,661	10,906	8475	97
Riom	Allier, Cantal, Upper Loire, Puy-de-Dome	1,400,000	37,500	38,214	12,844	16
Rouen	Eure, Lower Seine	1,110,000	26,016	5268	4382	22
Toulouse	Arriege, Upper Garonne, Tarn, Tarn and Garonne	1,224,000	25,151	11,883	8070	46
	Mean term	31,817,000	32,311	9322	7285	23

Land and Naval Forces.

STAFF OFFICERS, &c.

Staff Officers, &c.	Royal Guard Line, Military Divisions.	Artillery.	Engineers.	Out of Garrison.	In Garrison.	Geographical Engineers.	Total.
Marshals of France	12	—	—	—	—	—	12
Lieutenant-Generals	88	—	—	67	—	—	155
Major-Generals	119	—	—	169	—	—	288
Colonels	48	37	27	1	—	3	116
Lieutenant-Colonels	32	30	28	5	—	3	104
Majors	90	72	59	19	—	9	249
Captains	248	170	244	68	—	36	766
Lieutenants	2	—	—	—	—	14	16
Sub-Lieutenants	—	—	—	—	—	4	4
Pupils at the Royal Staff School	40	—	—	—	—	—	40
Pupils and Sub-Lieutenants	—	80	50	—	—	6	136
Governors and Lieutenants of the King	—	—	—	—	110	—	110
Majors and Adjutants of forts	—	—	—	—	231	—	231
Chaplains and Secretaries of the different garrisons	—	—	—	—	409	—	409
Guards, Artillery and Engineers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Superintendents over workmen	—	560	516	—	—	—	1076
Secretaries and Commissary General (Swiss)	3	—	—	—	—	—	3
Military Intendants and Sub-Intendants	196	—	—	34	—	—	230
Total	878	955	924	263	750	75	3945

KING'S MILITARY HOUSEHOLD.

King's Military Household.	Military Intendants.	Marshals and Avant-Courier.	Officers and Guards of the Line.	Staff of the Body Guard.	Body Guard.	Foot Guards (ordinary number.)	Total.
Officers and Guards	3	13	25	17	1394	356	1808
Chaplains and Medical Officers							56
Total,							1864

BOOK CXLVI.

ARMY.

	Army.	Officers of all ranks.	Sub-officers, Brigadiers, Corporals, and Soldiers.	Total.	Total in each body.
Royal Guard Gendarmes	Chosen men	16	301	317	13,425
	Departemental. Infantry	587	2500	12,687	
	Departemental. Horse		9600		
	Corsican light troops	16	405	421	
	Infantry French	528	10,200	10,788	23,641
	Infantry Swiss	182	4462	4644	
	Cavalry	520	5916	6436	
	Artillery	102	1487	1589	
	Stationary companies	8	236	244	
Engineers		234	4639	4873	4873
Line	Infantry French	6840	109104	115944	123,840
	Infantry Swiss	364	7532	7896	
	Cavalry	2492	28,679	31,171	31,171
	Artillery	1131	14,399	15,530	16,255
	Military Equipage	49	676	725	
	Stationary companies	220	5480	5700	5700
		13,289	205616		218,905
Brought over	Staff	—	—	—	3945
	Military household	—	—	—	1864
Total number		—	—	—	224,717

NAVY.

Ships, &c.	Men.
Naval Staff	16
1 Vessel	500
14 Frigates	4198
6 Sloops of war	840
18 Brigs from sixteen to twenty guns	1668
5 Sloops of eighteen guns (Advice-Boats)	500
13 Schooners of sixteen guns	1040
1 Small Brig	63
1 Gun-Brig	48
29 Schooners	1040
9 Cutters, Luggers, Advice-Boats	279
1 Flotilla-ship	28
4 Steam Vessels	164
7 Sloops of Burden	924
18 Flat-bottomed barges	852
1 Transport	33
2 Vessels in commission	371
Slave Ship	217
128	12,926

French Colonies.

AMERICA.

Martinique		98,000	228,000
Guadeloupe	92,500		
Dependencies.			
Maria-Galante	12,000	111,000	
Saintes	1,200		
Desirada	1,300		
Saint Martin (Eastern part of)	4,000		
Guiana		18,400	
Saint Peter and Miquelon		600	

AFRICA.

Bonat and Calle. Factories for the Coral Fisheries		101,000
Senegal, Saint Lewis Island of Saint Lewis, neighbouring islands of Babaghé, Safal and Ghibar; different settlements on the river; the *Escales*, or Gum Markets; part of the coasts from cape Blanc to the Bay of Jof GOREE. Island of Goree; the coast from the Bay of the Jof to the factory of Albreda in Gambia	20,000	
Island of Bourbon	88,400	
Island of Saint Mary, near the eastern coast of Madagascar	600	

ASIA.

HINDOSTAN. *Coast of Coromandel.* Pondicherry and the districts of Villenour and Bahour Karikal, and the four *maganons*, or neighbouring districts *Coast of the northern Serkars.* Yanaon, and the *Aldees* or dependencies, factory at Masulipatam BENGAL. Chandernagor and its territory; Goretti and different factories *Coast of Malabar.* Mahé and its territory; factory at Calicut *Gulf of Cambay.* Factories at Surat ARABIA. Factories at Moscat and Moka	179,000	179,000

Total population 508,000

Clergy in 1828.

Cardinals	5
Ecclesiastical peers of France	20
Archbishops	14
Bishops	66
Vicars-general	468
Titular canons	684
Honorary Canons	1788
Curates	3083
Officiating ministers	22,475
Vicars	5765
Chaplains	439
Almoners	839
Parish priests, who preach or confess	1976
Priests appointed to teach or direct different seminaries	1044
Ecclesiastical pupils in the seminaries, colleges, and in the houses of the curates	44,244
Ecclesiastics employed in the universities, exclusively of those in the primary schools	673
Number of women and girls in 3024 religious houses	19,340
Total	102,923

COMMERCIAL TABLES,

Exhibiting the mean quantity of the principal exports and imports of the years 1826, 1827, *and* 1828, *according to official reports.*

The kilogramme is equal to 2 lb. 3 oz. 5 dr. Avoirdupois. The frank is equal to tenpence. The litre is equal to 61,023 English cubic inches.

		Imports.	Exports.
Raw and carded silk,	kilog.	1,160,000	300,000
Raw and worked wax,		480,000	240,000
Grease and tallow,		940,000	350,000
Bones and horns,		1,900,000	60,000
Tobacco (in leaf)		3,830,000	1,780,000
——— manufactured,		—	180,000
Raw and dressed hemp,		6,000,000	60,000
Raw and dressed lint,		1,800,000	1,750,000
Cottons,		35,000,000	3,000,000

			Imports.	Exports.
Metals.	Lead,	kilog.	10,000,000	51,000
	Copper,		5,800,000	18,000
	Tin,		1,000,000	6,000
	Iron and steel,		15,000,000	850,000
	Gold in ingots and money,		25,000	30,000
	Silver in ingots and money,		670,000	90,000
	Platina,		100	5
Salt and rock salt,			4,500,000	64,000,000
Sugar,			59,000,000	8,500,000
Coffee,			17,200,000	8,500,000
Wines,		Litres.	2,400,000	109,500,000
Brandy and liqueurs,		Idem.	1,400,000	57,950,000
Lint and hemp (manufactured,)		Idem.	5,180,000	1,800,000
Lace and blonds,		(Value in Franks,)	1,580,000	1,750,000
Woollen stuffs,		Kilog.	50,000	1,000,000
Silks and gauze,		Idem.	40,000	570,000
Cotton stuffs,		Idem.	130,000	2,050,000
Felt Hats,		Number.	600	220,000
Cutlery and hardware,		Kilog.	1,050,000	2,000,000
Articles of Fashion,		(Value in Franks,)	9,000	3,200,000
Furniture,		Idem.	180,000	1,380,000
Approximate value of the imports and exports,		Idem.	555,000,000	610,000,000

COMPARATIVE BUDGETS OF FRANCE,

IN 1789, IN 1802 (YEAR XI,) AND IN 1830.

State of the Finances presented by Neckar to the States General, in 1789.

SUMS RECEIVED.

		Franks.
General revenue,		150,107,000
Of the Posts,	12,000,000	
Different Conveyances,	1,100,000	
Excise and customs,	50,220,000	
Domains and forests,	50,000,000	
Lotteries,	14,000,000	134,240,000
Casual revenues,	3,000,000	
Marc d'Or,*	1,500,000	
Powder and saltpetre,	800,000	
Certain fixed revenues,	1,620,000	
Ordinary imposts, poll tax, and twentieths,		155,655,000

* The Marc d'Or is a sum paid to the king by a person appointed to an office.

BOOK CXLVI.

		Franks.
Imposts on the countries in which the states are held,		—
Languedoc,	9,767,250	24,556,027
Brittany,	6,611,460	
Burgundy,	4,128,196	
Provence,	2,892,463	
Pau, Bayonne, Foix,	1,156,658	
Poll tax, twentieths commuted,	6,865,000	10,763,000
Imposts for the fortifications of towns,	575,000	
Benéfice on the coin,	580,000	
Revenue from the commercial fund,	636,000	
Different leases,	180,000	
Interest on sums lent to the United States,	1,600,000	
Interest on six millions lent to a German prince,	300,000	
Neat amount of the receipts,		475,294,027
Expense of collection, &c,		230,000,000
Total amount of the receipts,		705,294,027

Result.

Expenses,	531,444,000
Neat Receipts,	475,294,627
Yearly deficiency,	56,149,793

SUMS EXPENDED.

	Franks.
King's household, Children of France, Aunts of the King,	25,000,000
Princes of the blood,	8,240,000
Foreign Affairs, Swiss Lines,	7,480,000
War department,	99,160,000
Navy and Colonies,	40,500,000
Roads and bridges,	5,680,000
Royal studs,	814,000
Perpetual and life-rents,	162,486,000
Different interests,	44,300,000
Salaries of the different offices in the financial department,	14,692,000
Interest and expense of anticipations in 1790 and 1791,	15,800,000
Stipulations with the clergy,	2,500,000
Indemnities,	3,235,000
Pensions,	29,560,000
King's counsel, chancellor, keeper of the seals, secretary of State, &c,	3,173,000
Governors of Provinces,	1,495,000
Police and Guard of Paris,	2,708,000
Marshalsea of the Province of the Ile de France,	250,000
Roads, streets, works and quarries near Paris,	1,027,000
Expenses of the poll tax and twentieths in the provinces,	7,120,000
Sums allowed to collectors and farmers of the revenue,	20,094,000
To the officers, paymasters, &c, of the treasury,	3,753,000

	Franks.
Ministerial offices,	2,048,000
Charitable fund, sums granted to foreigners,	1,002,000
Sums for building churches and sacred edifices,	2,188,000
Gifts, alms, charitable works, mendicity,	6,078,000
Commercial bounties, &c,	3,864,000
Public Instruction, King's Garden and Royal Library,	1,227,000
Public buildings,	1,900,000
Expenses of criminal justice,	3,180,000
Variable expenses in the provinces,	4,500,000
Different expenses, mines, &c,	990,000
Unforeseen expenses,	5,400,000
Total amount,	531,444,000

State of the Finances in 1802 (*An. XI.*)

RECEIPTS.

	Franks.
Excess of the receipts above the expenses in the preceding year,	2,000,000
Land and heritable taxes,	220,200,000
Personal and moveable taxes,	32,800,000
Additional centimes for departmental expenses,	15,783,000
Doors and windows,	16,000,000
Patents and tolls,	17,500,000
Registers and forests,	190,000,000
Customs,	40,000,000
Posts,	11,000,000
Lotteries,	12,000,000
Salt works,	3,500,000
Suretyship for justices of the peace, clerks, &c,	4,000,000
Accidental and different receipts,	4,717,000
	569,500,000
Foreign receipts,	20,000,000
Total,	589,500,000

The army consisted of 569,000 men; viz,

Infantry,	441,540
Cavalry,	68,900
Artillery,	46,480
Engineers,	5,800
Consular Guard,	6,200

The navy consisted of thirty-four ships of the line, thirty frigates, 150 sloops and 1000 armed pinnaces.

NOTE. — France was at peace in 1802 with the European powers.

EXPENSES.

National Debt.

To the creditors of the state,		39,570,918	64,023,482
To the sinking fund,		1,272,055	
Life-rent debt,		19,986,674	
Perpetual debt of six new departments,	2,677,277	3,193,835	
Life-rent debt, Idem,	516,558		

GENERAL EXPENSES.

Administration of justice,			23,318,730
Foreign affairs,			7,000,000
Finance Interior.	Ordinary services,	17,000,000	47,110,000
	Extraordinary,	22,500,000	
	Subsistences purchased in 1801,	7,610,000	
Finance department.	Ordinary service,	29,047,788	56,047,788
	Sureties partly reimbursed,	5,000,000	
	Interest on sureties,	2,000,000	
	Pensions,	20,000,000	
Service of the treasury,			6,000,000
War,		153,000,000	243,000,000
Ministry of war,		90,000,000	
Navy	Ordinary service,	70,000,000	126,000,000
	Extraordinary,	56,000,000	
Negotiations,			9,000,000
Balance,			8,000,000
			589,500,000

State of the Finances, according to the budget of 1830, *presented to both the Chambers in* 1829.

RECEIPTS.

Direct Taxes.

Land tax,	243,793,500	327,563,000
Personal and Moveable,	40,988,000	
Doors and Windows,	15,327,500	
Patents, tolls,	26,804,000	
Charges and advertisements,	650,000	
Additional tax on timber,		1,558,000
Registers and domains,		185,337,000
Forests,		27,300,000

INDIRECT TAXES.

Customs.

Duties on imports,	104,165,000	
exports,	1,448,000	
salt,	54,250,000	163,590,000
navigation,	2,972,000	
different articles,	755,000	
wines, spirits, &c,	106,698,000	
carriages, &c,	33,502,000	
tobacco,	67,989,000	212,285,000
gunpowder,	4,096,000	
Posts,		30,523,000
Lottery,		12,500,000
Gaming houses,		5,500,000

Different Products.

Salt works and salt mines,	1,800,000
Benefice of the mint,	140,000
Produce of the mines,	240,000
Receipts from different debts,	500,000
Products in different departments of the state,	1,200,000
Indemnities for military supplies,	150,000
Restitutions made to the state,	70,000
Receipts from schools and places of exercise,	50,000
Services in arrear,	50,000
Eventual receipts,	1,601,000
Verification of weights and measures,	800,000
Eventual receipts from the departments,	746,000
Improvements in the customs, domains, and indirect taxes,	3,500,000
Interest on a Spanish debt of 80,000,000 franks,	2,349,000
Total,	979,352,000
Excess of the expenses,	2,158,000
	981,510,000

Sums payable on order.

Royal council of public instruction,	3,992,500
Tax on brevets of invention,	150,000
Management of powder and saltpetre works,	3,426,500
Gold and silver, retained after coinage,	2,067,000
	9,636,000

BOOK CXLVI.

EXPENSES.

Civil List,			32,000,000
National debt,			269,918,000
Registered pensions,	Legion of Honour,	3,400,000	61,006,000
	Peers, retired senators, &c,	2,763,000	
	Civil,	1,500,000	
	Military,	45,600,000	
	Ecclesiastical,	5,450,000	
	Donees,	1,510,000	
	Superannuated fund,	783,000	
General service.	Chamber of peers,	800,000	8,745,000
	——— deputies,	600,000	
	Money,	1,440,000	
	Registry,	5,500,000	
	Sums paid to emigrants, &c,	405,000	
Court of Exchequer,			1,255,000
Justice.	Administration of justice,	552,000	19,649,000
	King's council,	686,500	
	Courts and tribunals,	14,564,000	
	Criminal justice,	3,400,000	
	Supplementary funds pensions,	371,500	
	Seals and titles,	75,000	
Foreign affairs.	Administration of foreign affairs,	1,020,000	9,000,000
	Diplomatic agents, &c,	4,834,000	
	Expenses of the foreign service,	3,146,000	
Clergy.	Ecclesiastical department,	370,000	35,921,000
	Salaries, &c, of the clergy,	33,071,000	
	Aids to the clergy,	2,480,000	
Public Instructer,			1,995,000
Interior.	Home department,	1,451,000	105,600,000
	Roads, bridges, canals, ordinary expenses,	39,900,000	
	Public works,	3,657,000	
	Sciences and arts,	2,491,000	
	Non-catholic clergy,	720,000	
	Studs,	1,840,000	
	Useful institutions,	1,425,000	
	Departmental expenses,	47,956,500	
	Special expenses, (Paris)	1,040,000	
	Departmental (hail, fires, &c,	1,819,000	
Commerce.	Commercial department,	894,000	3,294,000
	Cod and whale fisheries,	2,400,000	
War departments.	War department,	1,577,000	187,200,000
	Staff,	16,844,000	
	Military household,	3,140,000	
	Gensdarmes,	15,849,000	
	Pay and maintenance of the troops,	127,769,000	
	Artillery (materials,)	7,179,000	
	Engineers (materials,)	8,325,000	
	Military schools, depots, &c,	2,004,000	
	Quarters, reforms, aids, &c,	4,486,000	

Navy colonies.	Different expenses,	34,919,000	65,270,000
	Navy (material,)	22,267,000	
	Colonies,	7,000,000	
	Hospitals,	1,184,000	
Finances.	Expense of collecting the public money,		117,473,000
	Different expenses,		59,584,000
Sums borrowed for canals, roads and bridges,			3,600,000
	Total,		981,510,000

Expenses that may be incurred.

Council of public instruction,	3,459,000
Tax on brevets of invention,	150,000
Powder and saltpetre,	3,428,000
Money, (expense of coinage,)	2,067,000
	9,104,000

BOOK CXLVII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Description of the Scandinavian Peninsula. Kingdom of Norway.

BOOK CXLVII.

At the northern extremity of Europe, in those regions where winter, characterised by long and severe frosts, and losing the gray complexion which it presents in temperate climates, covers the ground with a dazzling carpet of snow, and adorns itself with the brilliant fires of the Aurora Borealis; where the long days of summer, even hotter than under the sky of Italy, are indebted to the scorching rays of the sun for the blessings of a vegetation which unfolds itself with surprising rapidity, there lives a people, who, in the bosom of an advanced civilization, have religiously preserved the laws and manners of their ancestors. This people is the Norwegian.

Language of the Scald Poetry.

Descended probably from the same source, the Norwegian speaks a language, which has the same origin with that of the Swedes and Danes. In the eighth century one dialect formed one great family, and in this dialect were composed the songs consecrated to the mysteries and mythological creed of the Scandinavians. The brilliant fictions which still enliven our poetry, appear to have been, if not produced, at least tastefully coloured under the beautiful sky of Greece; yet we find a part of their lustre in the ancient Edda, the most valuable collection we possess of Scandinavian poems. Let us open one of these poems, the *Vol-Uspa*, or the Oracle of the Prophetess *Vola*, in which the creation of the world, and its destruction, are

Scandinavian Poems.

described in glowing language. We there read that in the beginning a vast chaos reigned over the universe; the gods themselves slumbered in the repose of a long and dark night. At last appeared the giant *Ymer*, with his brothers, in the midst of that ocean of vapours which filled the immensity of space, and framed a world, gigantic indeed, but without proportion, and as yet enveloped in darkness. But *Odin*, the god of light, accompanied by his two brothers *Ve* and *Vite*, extended his reign over this universe, still shapeless and rude: then the sun, hitherto wandering in space, drew the other stars after him around our planet. Now the seasons succeeded each other regularly. Ymer fell under the blows of Odin, and in his blood the giants his brothers were drowned, one excepted, who, more fortunate than the rest, took refuge in the mountains, where he propagated a race destined one day to embrue the earth with blood.

Creation of the world and of man

Odin, intent upon beautifying the universe, created man and woman from the trunk of a tree thrown by the waves upon the beach. Does not this incident conceal a philosophical idea? May we not discover in this wreck, tossed upon the ocean, and which becomes the origin of the human race, the cause of that stormy life that attends man in this world? Whatever there may be in this, the deities hastened to adorn this new race of beings with the finest qualities; the earth presented the image of happiness; innocence and knowledge reigned in it; the arts diffused themselves; gold became the most common of metals. But the daughters of the giants descended from their mountains; one of them, *Gullveiga* or the *Weigher of Gold*, spread among men avarice and the love of gain; thrice the gods delivered her over to the flames, and thrice she revived from her ashes. And she still lives. She it is who first caused human blood to flow, and, through her influence, it will never cease flowing.

The Olympus of the north.

Asagard is the Scandinavian Olympus. There, amidst surrounding clouds, arises, resplendent with light, *Valhalla*, or the palace of Odin, the abode of the gods, the asylum destined for those mortals, who have by their virtues rendered themselves worthy of it. There the hero slain in battle

is admitted to the banquet of the gods. There *Freya*, the daughter of the god of the seas, as Venus is of the foam, adorns herself with all the charms of youth. She is the goddess of love and of beauty, and, under the name of *Vanadis*, also the goddess of hope. She shares with Odin the empire of the dead; because it is often unsuccessful love which hurries its victims into the heart of battle. *Frigga*, the chaste spouse of Odin, the Ceres and Juno of the Scandinavians, receives, after death, such wives as have been distinguished by a heroic fidelity; while *Thor*, her eldest son, who, with his club, terrifies the giants, and makes them re-enter the limits of *Jotounheim*, the prison reserved for them, in like manner rewards after their death faithful slaves. In the palace of the Immortals, *Bragor*, the god of the arts and of music, charms the ears of the deities with the notes of his golden harp. *Idunna*, his wife, distributes among the inhabitants of heaven apples, which perpetuate their immortality. *Forsete*, another son of Odin, has for his employment the preserving peace among mankind; and the goddess *Vara* presides over the sacredness of oaths. Without this hallowed mansion, the god *Uller*, gliding on his sparkling skates, cuts the air with the rapidity of lightning, surpassing the winds in swiftness; while the watchful *Heimdal*, a sentinel ever attentive to the motions of the evil genii, guards night and day that aerial arch, the seven colours of which are so often seen by men. But the object beloved by all the gods is *Balder*, the son of Odin, the most amiable of the immortals, and out-dazzling them all, endued by destiny with every good quality of the heart, with every intellectual gift, and with every physical advantage. Nothing equals his beauty: his eyes shine with a lustre more brilliant than that of the rays of the morning star. To him alone belongs the power of appeasing tempests. A stranger to the passions which agitate the other gods; unfond of their warlike projects, and their obstreperous mirth, he seldom appears at their assemblies, living peaceably in a palace, whose situation is pointed out by that white belt, which during clear nights shines in the vault of heaven.

Destruction of the universe.

But this world, organized by Odin, will one day fall to ruin, and again become part of the empire of chaos: the death of Balder has been predicted, and Odin has read this terrible secret in the Book of Fate. *Siona*, the goddess of sympathy and love; *Snotra*, who bestows prudence and moderation; *Lowna*, who presides over conjugal fidelity; the three *Nornies*, who regulate the destiny of mortals; the twelve *Valkiries*, nymphs who accompany heroes to battle; in short, all the gods tremble in the knowledge of the future that threatens them. All these deities have brought the parts of nature, which are subject to them, under an oath to furnish no arms fatal to the life of Balder. Fire, water, vegetables, rocks, are bound by this oath; one parasitical plant alone, the misletoe, was forgotten. *Loke*, the genius of evil, has discovered the fatal omission, and he will employ this contemptible vegetable to accomplish the decree of fate. Assured that all the elements respect his life, Balder, amidst the warlike exercises of Valhalla, feels a pleasure in presenting his invulnerable breasts to the darts thrown at him by the gods; but Loke, at one of these celestial assemblies, will engage *Hoder*, the son of Odin, to take part, although blind, in the tournaments. Putting into his hand a branch of the misletoe, and directing his arm, the genius of evil will see his wishes accomplished by an unintentional fratricide. Loke will then re-assemble the giants his sons; he will open the gates of *Nastrond*, a frozen hell, where rivers of poison alone preserve their fluidity, and he will bring from thence the perjured, the assassins, and the dreadful *Hela*, the goddess of death. *Surtur*, the genius of fire, will at the same time escape from *Muspalheim*, his abode of flames. Then all these monsters and their attendants will attack the gods; the serpent *Jormungandur* will crush the earth in his immense folds; the wolf *Fenris* will devour the star of day and the mighty Odin; the stars will fall from the azure vault; the two celestial armies will perish, annihilated by each other; and the universe, disorganized by so many opposing struggles, will present only a vast collection of elements confusedly mixed.

BOOK CXLVII.

Resurrection of the world.

The predictions, however, of the Sybil Vola, do not terminate with this frightful catastrophe. She invokes a deity greater than all those who are to perish in the general conflagration. This being, superior to all others, will appear to establish eternal laws; a new earth will proceed from chaos, in the splendour of youth; the climates of the north will no longer have either ice or frost, but a perpetual spring will reign there; and Balder, the god of peace, raised again from the dead, will gather around him all virtuous men.*

Origin of this cosmogony.

In this exposé of Scandinavian mythology, we perceive resemblances to the writings of Plato, and many fictions similar to those which distinguish the philosophical systems of the Slavonians, Persians, and Indians. Do these different points of analogy prove, that in every climate man has given the same form to his religious ideas, as an author of merit supposes?† Or, do they rather point out to us, that the ancient dogmas of the north derive their origin from the sacred reveries, which are regarded as having their birth in India? Or, lastly, have they not rather been carried from the regions of the north even as far as the east? The study of such monuments as have survived the destruction of ages, the knowledge of the ancient languages of the north, and a comparison of them with those of India, have probably not yet thrown sufficient light upon these questions.

Runic Alphabet.

It is not difficult to recognise the striking resemblance that exists between the *Norman-Gothic*, the language of the Scaldes, that in which are written the two poems of the Edda and Voluspa, — and the *Sanscrit*. The *Runic* alphabet, which resembles the Phenician characters, and those of the ancient inscriptions at Persepolis, has been in use in the north from time immemorial.‡ Can we admit, with certain modern authors, that

* See the work entitled, Edda rhythmica seu Antiquior, vulgo soemundina dicta, &c. Copenhagen, 1827.

† Summary of the History of Sweden, by C. Coquerel, 2d edit. 1825.

‡ The *Runic* characters are so called from the old Latin word *runa*, (a javelin); because they are of a sharp or pointed form; the Persepolitan writing is formed of letters which we call wedge-shaped (*cuneiformes*), from their resemblance to a wedge or an arrow-head.

the conqueror, who, under the name of Odin, was deified in the humid and icy regions of Scandinavia, where he founded a new creed and a new empire, proceeded from Asiatic Tartary, when a crowd of traditions and monuments prove, that the Scandinavian worship, or that of Odin, had been, when the Romans penetrated into Germany, established there from the remotest antiquity? Does not history present to us, in every country of the globe, the people of the north subduing the nations of the south, and the latter, through an instinct of self-preservation only, re-acting upon the north from a distance, to keep back the masses ready to pour in upon them? If the affinity of languages is not a chimera; if the first language, if the first alphabet, if the first arts adopted by every people, are not the natural and universal results of the physical and moral organization of man; if they do not resemble each other for the same reason that in every country the drawings sketched by a child, or by an uneducated man, bear an identical character: let us say, that in order to ascend to their origin, we must advance to the north rather than to the south, because it is not natural that people should quit warm or temperate regions for northern ones, which have not even sufficient attraction to retain the natives, as is proved by the frequent migrations sent by the North to more favoured climates. It appears to us then difficult to prove that the Scandinavians are not descended from a primitive race, indigenous to the countries which it still inhabits.*

Ancient name.

Under the name of *Scandia*, the ancients designated all the countries which now comprise Norway and Sweden. Pliny calls it *Scandia insula*. The origin of this appellation is, that in the time of the Roman naturalist, they were only acquainted with that part of the country called *Skanen* or *Skonen*, and that through the report of some Germans. This is the ancient province of *Schonen* or *Scania*, the most southern of Sweden. The name was afterwards changed to *Scandinavia*.

The Runic characters, which also resemble the Samaritan, the ancient Greek, and the Celtiberian, are in number sixteen.

* 'God hath made of one blood all the nations of the earth.' Paul, in Acts xvii, 26.—*Translator's Note.*

BOOK CXLVII.

Ancient inhabitants.

The Scandinavian tribes were much more addicted to the chase, and to fishing, than to agriculture. These occupations formed the principal guarantees of their independence. With them the representative form of government seems to have originated. They obeyed chiefs or kings who were at once judges and high-priests, but whose power was limited by the national assemblies composed of free men. The supreme authority was partly hereditary and partly elective; and this mixed organization was long preserved in Sweden. Their habitations lay dispersed; and to them, like the Germans, the confinement of a city would have proved an insupportable prison. Their manners were severe. With them, hospitality was the first of duties; cowardice and adultery were the two greatest crimes. They interred their warriors in such parts of the sea-beach, as were alternately covered and abandoned by the waves: 'These tribes,' says an author, whose testimony has already been referred to, 'imagined that the shades of heroes preferred the majestic noise of the billows to the silent repose of a valley or a plain, and that their ghosts, rising amidst the obscurity of the evening, loved to contemplate the sons of Odin returning from their foreign expeditions, and repeating the warlike songs with which they had inspired them.*

Ancient manners.

The respect which they had for their women was carried much farther than even that of the Celts and Germans. At their festivals, at their public meetings, at their feasts, the women always occupied the place of honour. They, on the other hand, rendered themselves worthy of the respect of the men, by their virtues, and by their attachment to their husbands. Often they accompanied them to battle, perished with them, or re-assembled the troops to avenge their death. Sometimes, but this was not a general custom, they immolated themselves on their husbands' funeral pile. The deep regard which the Scandinavians had for chastity, formed the principal safeguard of their manners; the women did not live apart from the men; the young women might re-

* Summary of the history of Sweden, by C. Coquerel.

ceive into their apartments their relations, and even their future husbands. If, during a journey, two individuals of different sexes, and unmarried, were obliged to sleep upon the same bed, the man placed his naked sword between the woman and him; and it formed a more secure barrier than modern bolts. They were taught to read and to engrave runic characters, a knowledge interdicted to slaves; music and poetry formed also their employment; and the *Sagas*, ancient historical relations, cite a great number of princesses who aspired to the title of poet. The women alone practised medicine and surgery; they alone dressed the wounded. They excelled also in the art of interpreting dreams, of predicting the future, and discovering the character of individuals from their features and physiognomy. Yet this superior education did not exclude domestic occupations; even their queens were acquainted with sewing, embroidery, baking, and brewing.

If the religion and manners of the ancient Scandinavians present a picture interesting, from the view it gives of the Norwegians and Swedes before their acquaintance with Christianity, that which they now present equally merits our attention. Let us begin with Norway. In spite of the vague ideas which the ancients entertained of the northern countries of Europe, it cannot be doubted that the country which Pliny calls *Nerigon** is Norway. Many geographers† have asserted that the name signifies the *Way to the North*;‡ but its true etymology is *Nor-Rige*, Kingdom of the North, or rather, perhaps, assuming the word *Nor* as signifying *Gulf*, *Kingdom of Gulfs*, because in effect its coasts are much more indented than those of Sweden. We thus see that the name of *Nerigon* has much more analogy with that of *Norrige*, than with that of *Norweg*, which at the first glance appears to be the origin of the modern name.

Ancient names of Norway.

The petty sovereigns who divided Norway were, from times the most remote, independent, acknowledging, however, a kind of supremacy in the kings of Sweden and Den-

Historical Notices.

* Lib. iv, cap. 16.

† See the article *Norwege* in the *Dictionnaire Geographique de l'Encyclopédie*.

‡ From *Nord* and *Weg* (way) *Norweg*.

BOOK CXLVII.

mark, till, about the year 940, Harold Harfagre, (the *Fair-haired*,) after long fighting, formed one kingdom of all these principalities. Olof Trygvason, known also under the name of Olaus, whose bold adventures astonished the North, possessor of the Norwegian throne in 991, endeavoured, by violence and cruelty, to extirpate the worship of Odin in his new states. But another Olof, at the commencement of the eleventh century, surpassed his predecessor in tyranny, and in zeal for the church, or in other words, for the clergy. And, in return, the church made a saint of him: even at Constantinople they erected temples to his memory, and his tomb was visited by pilgrims, not only from the North, but from all Europe. Down to the fourteenth century, many kings, whose vices and virtues we shall not even sketch, succeeded one another in the midst of political storms. Towards the close of the fourteenth century, the three kingdoms of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway were united under one sovereign, Margaret, daughter of Waldemar of Denmark. In the lifetime of Margaret, she appointed her grand-nephew, Eric, surnamed of Pomerania, her successor, who, on the death of Margaret, in 1412, succeeded to the three crowns, as Eric II, of Norway, IX, or X, of Denmark, and XIII, of Sweden.* After various attempts had been made on the part of the Swedes, the oppression and cruelty of Christian II, led to a final separation of Sweden in 1520, under the renowned Gustavus Ericson (Vasa,) but Norway and Denmark remained under one sceptre till their separation in 1814, when Norway was united to the crown of Sweden.

Government, &c.

It is known, that the Norwegians were opposed to the separation from Denmark and union to Sweden that took place after the downfall of Napoleon's empire in 1815. To compensate Sweden for the loss of Finland, to reward her for her assistance under Bernadotte, then crown prince of Sweden, in the important campaign of 1813, and at the same time to punish Denmark for her adherence to Napoleon,

* It is altogether a mistake in the original to say that Eric XIII, reigned in *Sweden only*. He was the same person who was Eric II, in Norway, and Eric IX, or X, in Denmark.

or rather her neutrality in what was considered the common cause of Europe, the allies, in the plenitude of their power, determined upon the violent separation of two states that had been united for ages, and the junction of Norway with a state that had for ages been considered her natural enemy. It was in vain that the Norwegians remonstrated, and attempted resistance: they were threatened with starvation by a blockade of their ports; and they at last agreed to the union, on condition of being allowed to choose a constitution of their own. The constitution they made choice of was eminently popular, indeed democratic. All orders of nobility were abolished, with this exception, that those who possessed titles under the old regime, were allowed to retain them during their lives, and their children who were born, previous to the new order of things, are allowed to succeed them, but with them the title of nobility expires. The king is chief magistrate, but no taxes can be imposed, or laws passed, without the consent of the *Storthing*, or great council of the nation, which meets every three years, in the month of February, except in extraordinary cases, when it may be assembled, without regard to the ordinary time. It is composed of seventy-seven deputies, twenty-six from the towns, and fifty-one from the country. A spirit of independence runs through all the proceedings of the Storthing, which has led to continual differences between them and the Swedish government, the latter accusing the Norwegians of an unreasonable and factious opposition, while they, on the other hand, charge the government with attempts to innovate upon and change the constitution. A traveller who lately (1827) visited Norway, was present at a meeting of the Storthing; 'There were,' he says, 'about fifty members present, some of whom had come from the unfrequented parts of the country, and surprised us by the patriarchal simplicity of their appearance. They were drest in the coarse gray woollen cloth of the peasants, with long hair reaching to their shoulders, and their whole costume reminded one of the fashions of other centuries; they seemed beings of a different era from ourselves.' 'Were not,' the writer adds, 'the senators of Rome, when virtuous and poor, somewhat such men as these?'

BOOK CXLVII.

By an article of the constitution, the king must pass some time every year in Norway, unless prevented by urgent circumstances; and by another, public employments are conferred only on Norwegian citizens, who profess the established religion, which is declared to be the Lutheran. Jews, by an express article, are prohibited from entering Norway.

Actual state.

In a country where man seems to have always enjoyed his rights, and preserved the exercise of his dignity; where the peasant, far from being subjected to a kind of moral and political non-existence, under which he has been everywhere else oppressed, lives a free-man, and is represented by deputies in the national assemblies; where the rich proprietor is, so to speak, merely a rich peasant, — where the order of nobility is unknown, — where large estates and mansion-houses corresponding, are less frequent than in any other country, the epocha of the reformation would naturally be an era consolidating institutions dear to a population jealous of its liberty: and thus Protestantism was easily established in Norway in the year 1525. The Norwegian clergy, no less charitable and virtuous than those of other Christian countries, are superior to them in information. It is amongst this respectable class that the peasantry find well-informed teachers, indulgent reprovers, assiduous comforters, and models of behaviour. Every plan which is conducive to the general interest, public utility, and the prosperity of the country, finds wise appreciators of its value in the simplest country curates. It is also to their advice and to their influence that government is anxious to have recourse, when it is intended to erect granaries, to repair bridges and roads, or to adopt some new mode of cultivation. It is rare not to find among the clergy well informed mineralogists, economists, botanists, and agriculturists. There have been amongst them many sufficiently acquainted with astronomy to find pleasure in diffusing the knowledge of this science, and so zealous, as at their own expense to raise observatories furnished with every necessary instrument. They have been even known to introduce among their parishioners the art of making watches and clocks.

In travelling through Norway, we at this day discover the truth of what has been said above of the taste of the Scandinavians for separate habitations: a village is often composed of houses scattered here and there, and forming one parish extending over a space of several leagues. On Sundays the roads are seen covered with light carriages, which transport the peasant, with his whole family, in their best array to church to assist in divine service; the churches, although large, can rarely contain the crowds eager to listen to the voice of their pastor. After sermon the whole population give themselves up to the amusement of the dance, to games, and various gymnastic exercises. Often the young men unite to go through military manœuvres. At a fixed time every year, the youth, who, still inheriting the warlike inclinations of their ancestors, voluntarily enrol themselves in the militia, assemble together under the command of their officers, and form military camps, where they are instructed in the manual exercise and other military evolutions.

Summer occupations.

Industry and frugality, sources of civil virtues, form prominent features in the Norwegian population: information and education strengthening these valuable qualities, shelter them from corruption of manners, and maintain in all hearts the sacred fire of love of independence. Christmas is the only time of the year, when the reassembling of families, and accompanying festivities, make the Norwegians deviate from their simple and frugal habits. It is also about the same time, and during the month of January, that the peasant, trusting to the swiftness of his sledge, travels to the towns, to exchange the produce of his crop for country implements and for articles of manufacture suitable to his wants and inclinations. The aptitude of the Norwegians to imitate every thing is such, that during the long winter-evenings, they are seen in every family, assembled around the fire-place, the men employed in making knives, spoons, shoes, and buttons for their clothes; the women, in weaving stuffs of linen and woollen for their dress, and even dyeing them with the colouring lichens with which the country abounds. Besides, the skill which distinguishes the population in some districts is such, that it

Winter occupations.

BOOK CXLVII.

transforms every habitation into a little manufactory, the products of which are exported into districts less industrious.

Character of the Norwegians.

In Norway there are few great proprietors, but, on the other hand, extreme poverty is unknown. Nothing is more uncommon than to meet with a beggar. If age or infirmities disable some unfortunate creature from working, he finds assistance and generous attention in the bosom of his family or his parish. Compassion towards indigence and misfortune is with the Norwegian rather an old virtue, than the effect of Christian charity. It is the same as to hospitality, which with him is a sacred duty. To these personal qualities there is joined great quickness of apprehension, a character lively and frank, and unflinching fidelity. He loves with enthusiasm his country and his sovereign, and respects his superiors, but refuses them slavish homage. His manners are gentle, polished, affectionate; his mien is noble, his gait easy, his dress always neat. The costume of females is simple and graceful; at home they wear a plain morning gown, with a linen chemise of a dazzling whiteness, plaited around the neck and fastened by a collar. A complexion of the lily and the rose, beautiful flaxen hair, a person tall and well-shaped, give them a peculiar grace, which a stranger would be tempted to take for coquetry, if Scandinavian modesty and stateliness did not betray themselves in their look and behaviour. Some districts situated in the mountains have preserved the old Scandinavian costume, such as that of Valvers, where the inhabitants are no longer seen, according to an ancient custom, fighting with the knife, after being tied together by their girdles; the district of Tellemark, where mutual trust and good faith leave them in ignorance of the use of locks; and, in fine, vallies, where some families of peasants, which only marry with one another, pretend to be descended from the ancient kings of the country.

Dress.

Manners of towns.

Such are the manners of the peasantry: the manners of the inhabitants of the towns are, it is true, less irreproachable and less pure; some seeds of corruption are already remarked there, but there is nothing at all resembling the depravity which we see in cities in other parts of Europe.

Mountains

Let us now cast a glance at the physical state of Norway. The mountains which traverse this kingdom and Sweden form of themselves a range which we may call *the Scandinavian*, and which divides itself into three groups. That of the *Koelen* mountains, the most considerable from its length, extends from the northern extremity of Lapland, to its junction with the *Dovre* mountains, near the source of the little river of Nidelv. Strictly speaking this forms but one great chain, but the branches it casts off to the right and to the left, the mountainous isles of Lofoden, which are merely the summits of some of its branches, the mountains which terminate near Lake Enara in Russian Lapland, merit for it the name of group. That of *Dovre* or *Dovrefield* may perhaps be considered as forming with *Snoe-Hoettan* to the west, and *Seveberg* and *Svuku* which terminate in platforms in southern Sweden, a second group. Lastly, this group is separated by the course of the Vog, from that which is composed of *Langfield*, *Soynefield* or *Sunnanfield*, and *Hardangerfield*, and the divisions which they send out to the west and south. This last group occupies all the southern part of Norway.*

Rivers.

The average distance of the summit of the Koelen mountains from the sea-cost of Norway being only twenty leagues, the rivers proceeding from them and running into the North Sea, can be of no great length. The most important is the *Namsen*, which, from its exit from the lakes that give rise to it, has only a course of thirty leagues. Other more considerable streams descend from the mountains Dovrefield and Sunnanfield: these are the *Glommen*, the *Drammenselv*, and the *Lougen*; which empty themselves into the strait of *Skager Rack*, separating Denmark from Norway. The Glommen is a river of one hundred and fifty leagues in length, the principal tributary of which, the *Vormen-elv*, has a course of not less than fifty leagues. The Glommen has a great many falls; and, on the melting of the snows, or after great rains, it acquires a frightful rapidity, and its inundations desolate the fields. One of these falls is at Hafslun, about ten miles distant from Frederic-

* For the height of these mountains, see Vol. VI, p. 15.

BOOK CXLVII.

stadt. Here the Glommen, about the size of the Thames at Richmond, 'gradually contracts itself with more hurried current, till it arrives at the deep gorge formed by the projecting rocks, and then bursts headlong into the abyss beneath. The fall is not quite perpendicular. Some idea may be given of the body of water that descends, from the circumstance that a three-masted ship was loading at some distance below.'* The height of the fall is seventy-two Norwegian feet. A melancholy catastrophe occurred here on the 5th February 1702. The family seat of Borge, situated over against Hafslun, together with every thing in it, sunk down into an abyss of a hundred fathoms deep, the gap being instantaneously filled up by a sheet of water of between three and four hundred ells long, and half the breadth. The house was doubly walled; but of these, as well as several high towers, not the least trace was seen; fourteen persons and two hundred head of cattle perished. The cause of this melancholy occurrence is attributed to the Glommen having undermined the foundation. The declivity of the ground does not admit of the lakes of Norway being equal in magnitude to those of Sweden. The largest is the *Miœsen*, twenty leagues long by two in breadth, through which passes the Vormen-elv. The most important waterfalls are those of *Feiumfos* near Lister, six hundred feet in height, and *Roegenfos*, in the province of Tellemark, eight hundred and fifty feet in height.

Geological constitution.

The soil of Norway is, in general, composed of primitive earths. In the Hardangerfield mountains, the summit of Vetta-Kelden is composed of red porphyry, which, at the depth of from twenty to thirty feet, assumes all the characters of the rock called syenite. In the highest mountains of the group gneiss predominates; from the mountain Lie to the rivulet Totak, we find micaceous schistus; in all that mountainous region schistus shows itself at every step, and here furnishes slates which readily split into long and straight sheets, or else, as in the neighbourhood of Groven, give place to mines of whetstones. On the banks of the Totak the soil is strewed with blocks of stone from

* Everest's Journey through Norway, &c.

thirty to forty feet in height; the position which they occupy is too far from the mountains to explain their origin; however they can only be the result of alluvions formed at one of the latest geological epochas by currents of fresh water proceeding towards the sea. At all times these blocks have been objects of wonder to the natives of the country; and, according to a mythological tradition, it was the god Thor who broke them with his hammer, and who afterwards having let fall that instrument, threw them about on all sides in seeking it. A geologist breaking specimens from these stray blocks, might, even at this day, be taken by the inhabitants for a worshipper of Thor. Near Bergen, in the island of Hiertoen, there appears above the waves, a pile of black and porous lava, from twenty to thirty feet in thickness. The whole southern part of Norway has frequently experienced earthquakes. A naturalist* maintains, that the masses of lava just referred to, may have been thrown from the bosom of the waves; and it is even said, that fifteen leagues to the south of Bergen, at the bottom of the bay of Bukfiord, there sometimes proceeds fire from a crevice, in a precipitous rocky shore formed of gneiss.

Minera wealth.

All the mountains, and especially those of the south, contain a great number of minerals, sought after in collections, and of metals in use by man: the environs of Drontheim, at the foot of the Koelen mountains, and of Raraas, at the base of the Dovrefield mountains, contain copper of the best quality; the best iron mines are wrought in the district of Arendahl. The abundance of these metals in part indemnifies Norway for the diminished wealth of the silver mines of Kongsberg, the working of which has, however, been revived since 1815. In other places there are found lead, cobalt, and plumbago. Different kinds of marble are taken from the sides of several mountains; some of which are employed in the arts, principally in the environs of Bergen.

Vegetation

In southern Norway the mountains are, many of them,

* See Observations on the Physical Geography of Scandinavia, by Professor Steffens, Hertha, vol. x, and xi.

surmounted with rounded tops, crowned with wood; in the north, on the contrary, the mountains, although less elevated, are almost always covered with snow, and consequently stripped of vegetation; but the hills, most generally composed of sand, give birth to many cryptogamous plants. Those whose surface is formed of mould are covered with different species of the saxifrage, and other plants scattered here and there: here the *diapensia laponica* presents tufts always green; there the elegant andromeda (*andromeda coerulea*, Linn.) rises in small bushes by the side of the trailing azalea (*azalea procumbens*) whose creeping branches preserve their freshness in the midst of the rigours of winter. At the foot of these hills, the birch, a tree whose juice, collected by the Norwegians, is useful in making a liquor which resembles sparkling white wine,—suspends in the breeze her light and flexible branches, and often forms with the maple, the pine, and the fir, forests of an immense extent. The pyramidal form of these resinous trees is in harmony with the sharp rocks which serve them for a base, and with the icicles, which, during several months, load their branches with elegant stalactites. The fir attains a height of a hundred and sixty feet. It is much in request for masts and carpentry work. After being cut down, it is thrown from the top of the steep summits into the little rivers which descend from the mountains to the sea. Dragged along by the rapidity of these streams, it bursts over the cataracts, and does not stop in its progress till it reaches the ranges of piles fixed at a short distance from the creek or bay, where it becomes an object of trade. In the low lands, the creeping strawberry-tree, the scarlet-flowered camarina (*impetrum nigrum*), and the dwarf birch-tree, whose seeds, concealed under the snow, are sought after during the winter by the ptarmigan, rise amidst the lichens which form the food of the rein-deer. In the centre provinces the aspen grows vigorously; in the environs of Drontheim, beyond the sixty-third degree of latitude, the oak begins to appear, and near Christiana, we see it flourishing, but it is only in the southern provinces that there are fine forests of this tree. In the south of Norway, apples and cherries arrive at perfect maturity: near Drontheim

they do not ripen, but the soft influence of the sea, which we have already had occasion to remark, is so sensibly felt in the island of Toutoroe, two degrees and a half from the polar circle, that in it these fruits ripen without difficulty. In some gardens in the south the peach, the apricot, and the melon, are cultivated, and succeed perfectly; and it seems even probable, that when horticulture shall have made some progress among the peasantry, they will be able to naturalize many plants of our temperate climes. Even now they cultivate with much care and success flax, hemp, and hops; and the culture of the potato has shown, that it would be always easy for Norway to avoid the scourge of scarcity, by multiplying this vegetable so as to supply the place of grain. There is little wheat raised; barley is more abundant; but oats is of all other grains that which succeeds best in this country, where agriculture has a thousand obstacles to surmount, where the low lands are frequently exposed to inundations, and the heights rendered sterile at one time by cold, and at another by heat.

Animal kingdom.

The increase of population has caused in Norway the diminution of the number of wild animals. The elk is now very rarely to be met with; the bear, resting upon his hind feet, still attacks the hunter who awaits him armed with his knife; the wolf continues to be the terror of the flocks; but whilst the bear takes refuge in the woody mountains, the wolf seems to dread the woods and hedges, and establishes himself in the open country, and even sometimes upon the ice. Different kinds of foxes inhabit the shores washed by the Icy Ocean; and the lemming descending in troops from the Koelen mountains, and marching in close columns, ravages the cultivated fields. A multitude of birds inhabit the coasts of the ocean, and Norway furnishes the greater part of the eider-down on which our delicate dames rest amidst their frequent headachs. Nothing is more dangerous than the manner in which the Norwegian goes to collect upon the rocks which border the sea, this down sought after by the effeminate. Suspended above the waves, he hoists himself up by the aid of a rope to reach the clefts and cavities where the birds build their nests. If the cord gives way, if the staff on which he leans should

BOOK CXLVII.

break, the unfortunate adventurer, thrown from the top of the precipice, finds a frightful death amidst the rocks and shoals below. The Norwegian rears in his valleys numerous flocks. His horses are small, but lively and sure-footed, like all those of mountainous countries: his horned cattle feed in peace in the islands that bound the western coast; there they often become so wild, that they are obliged to shoot them. His sheep are formed like deer, with long legs and small muzzles. Numbers of goats are also kept on the hills. Fish abound in the seas, lakes, and rivers, and the bold Norwegian derives considerable profit from his fishing.

Climate.

The climate of Norway presents more variety than is generally believed: it is not everywhere equally cold and severe; towards the east, and in the interior, the winter is longest, and the cold the most intense. This season is the most favourable part of the year for the mutual intercourse of the people, and the interchange of commercial transactions. It is also the season for those parties of pleasure so little known in softer climates. At this time there take place, in the environs of the towns, splendid races upon the snow, where the elegance and richness of the sledges, the splendour of the harnessing, and the beauty of the horses (which, swift as the wind, make the air resound with the clear sound of their little bells,) surpass by their lustre and their speed the brilliant assemblies of equipages at Paris, Vienna, and London. The spring announces itself by the sudden and terrible ravages occasioned by the melting of the snows. During the month of April, and the greater part of May, the country is impassable; and, in the mountains, travelling is impracticable till about the month of September, when the snows that cover them are in a great measure melted, and the heats of the summer have lost their force. At Bergen the length of the long days of summer is nineteen hours; but in the neighbourhood of Drontheim, three weeks. The average temperature of the year is at Christiana five degrees of heat of Réaumur's thermometer; while at Petersburg, under the same latitude, it is only three degrees. Near the southern coasts, the temperature in certain districts admits the

having two crops of grain, and in warm summers they have even three. Generally the climate is healthy. But towards the western coasts the country assumes a different aspect: the saline exhalations from the sea are injurious to vegetation; the bays never freeze; the cold is not felt, except when the east wind prevails, which crosses the high mountains, or the north, which comes from the Icy Ocean; the fogs, the rains, and the tempests extend their pernicious influence, one of the effects of which is to favour the ravages of the scurvy.*

General appearance.

We see from this exposé, that, situated between the fifty-eighth and seventy-first degrees of latitude, and in length more than four hundred leagues by a breadth of about twenty in the northern and eighty in the southern parts, Norway presents an aspect, in some parts, of the most pleasing, and in others, of the wildest description. Here, dark forests of pine-trees arise on the confines of ravines frightful from their depth; perpetual glaciers bear sway, and the loud cry of the eagle alone interrupts the silence of the desert. There, habitations covered with red tiles, and placed on the sides of hills, — isolated spires reflected on the surface of the lakes, — forges and mills hanging over the torrents, announce a country where civilization and industry advance without opposition in the way of improvement. On the coast, arms of the sea surrounded with rocks succeed each other with the most melancholy sameness. But on entering them the scene all at once changes, presenting at the bottom of these bays and creeks, whose narrow and sombre entrance is often dangerous, towns of a cheerful appearance. Let us notice some of the most important of these, beginning at the north and descending to the south.

Cities and Towns. Hammerfest.

Hammerfest, near the North Cape, is a thriving little place. The Spitzbergen trade is its principal support. Small sloops, from thirty to forty tons burden, are usually fitted out for expeditions to that quarter. This trade has given Hammerfest a more enterprising set of seamen than

* See Excursion to the Fieldstuen Mountains, by M. W. M. Carpelan; published in Sweden in 1824.

BOOK CXLVII.

any port in Norway. Drunkenness is very prevalent among the Laplanders here. *Tromsoë*, farther to the south, with its eight hundred inhabitants, is, says a traveller already quoted, 'quite the pride of the North.' It lies on an island covered with birch shrubs, and carries on some trade with the Russians from Archangel.

Tromsoë.

Drontheim.

Drontheim or *Trondheim*, lies at the bottom of an arm of the sea of great extent. It is a walled city, but its walls and its two forts are falling to ruin. It is built of wood, but the frequent fires, to which it has been subject, have led to the replacing the old habitations, by houses tastefully constructed, and wide and straight streets, in place of narrow and crooked lanes. It was founded in 997 by Olof Trygvason upon the site of the old Scandinavian city *Nideros*. At the distance of half a league from its wall, the church of *Hlades* covers the ground where stood the temple of Thor and Odin destroyed by Olof. Drontheim was long the residence of the Norwegian kings: the ancient throne of these princes is still to be seen in the palace now used as an arsenal. Drontheim possessed a magnificent cathedral, compared by the Norwegians to that of St Peter at Rome; but in 1719 a frightful fire destroyed it. It has been replaced by a church, less magnificent indeed, but still remarkable for its ornaments, its marble and massy pillars. Since the treaty of union, this church enjoys, as the former building did, the privilege of being the basilicon, where the kings of Norway are crowned. This is declared by an article of the new constitution. The most considerable buildings, after the cathedral, are the government house, and that of the Society of Sciences, which contains a good library, and a cabinet of natural history. The environs of Drontheim have a pleasing aspect: pretty villas rise here and there in the country, and on the borders of the bay. They are, besides, embellished by two beautiful waterfalls, called the great and the little *Leerfos*.

Bergen.

Bergen, also in the heart of a long bay, bristled with sand-banks, and surrounded by rocks, carries on a great trade in wood for building, spars, hides, and especially dry and salted fish. Seven mountains arise in a semicircle around the town, which is defended by batteries fronting

the sea, but has no regular fortifications. The old castle built in 1070, by the king Olof Kyrre, served as a residence to the sovereigns of Norway, to the celebrated epocha of the union of Calmar, about the end of the 14th century: it is now used as a prison, a store-magazine, and a habitation for the governor of the place. Bergen, as a town, cannot be compared with either Drontheim or Christiana. In place of the wide streets crossing each other at right angles, which we find in both these towns, in Bergen you are involved in a labyrinth of narrow lanes, and a stranger who once quits sight of his own door, is fortunate if he has not to hire a man to show him the way home again. Amongst its 3000 houses, which are almost wholly of one story and painted on the outside, there are to be seen several of stone. There are in Bergen four churches; many schools, amongst others a Lancastrian school, where 350 boys and girls are instructed; and different benevolent institutions. A museum is forming under the care of some individuals of the place, and the collection has enlarged so as to fill a handsome room: its principal riches are ancient remains of the country. It is the native place of Eric Pontoppidan, who was its bishop, and founded its university. It is the birthplace also of Louis Holberg, a writer distinguished as a historian and writer of comedies. During the middle ages Bergen was a factory of the Hanseatic League; its harbour is large and well fortified. From this city 1003 electors send four representatives to the *Storthing* of Norway.*

Christiansand.

Christiansand, on the southern coast, is the fourth city of the kingdom. It was founded in 1641, by Christian IV, king of Denmark, who wished to make it the principal station for his navy. In 1807 it was destroyed by the English. Its harbour has been repaired: it is deep, and well fortified, and forms the principal refuge of vessels that have suffered damage in the dangerous passage of the Cattegat. The cathedral is the finest edifice in the city. Half a league from the coast, a quarantine establishment is erected on an island.

Arendahl.

Arendahl is a small but neat town, built on rocks that project

* See Bergens beskrivelse, by M. L. Sagen, 1 vol. 8vo. 1824.

BOOK CXLVII.

into a channel of the sea, and is inhabited by merchants and fishermen. Ships lie close to the houses. *Frederikstadt*, at the mouth of the Glommen, carries on a considerable trade in wood for building. Batteries erected on several islands, and two forts which communicate by a subterranean passage, defend the entrance to its harbour. It is the only city of Norway which is built of stone. *Kongsberg*, celebrated for its silver mines and manufactory of children's toys, is watered by the Lauven, which runs in a deep and wild valley.

Frederikstadt.

Kongsberg.

Twelve leagues to the east of Kongsberg, the gulf of Christiana branches out into different bays. The length of this gulf is twenty-two leagues from south to north; its greatest breadth is five leagues, but in the narrowest part only a league and half. It is surrounded by high mountains, and studded over with islands, some of which are pretty large. Not a few small towns rise on its shores; amongst others that of *Moss*, where was concluded, on the 14th August 1814, the convention which led the way to the union of Sweden and Norway. *Christiana*, the capital of Norway, stands at the extremity of this gulf, and its houses and gardens, grouped in a circle around the harbour, seem to rest upon an amphitheatre of rocks and forests. The appearance of this capital is pleasant, as well as majestic; its streets are wide and well paved, and, if it contained fewer houses of wood, it would be one of the finest cities in the North. Its suburbs are considerable; one of these, called *Old Opslo*, is all that remains of the ancient capital of Norway, founded by Harold the Fair-haired, in the eleventh century, and destroyed by a fire in 1624. The modern capital bears the name of Christian IV, its founder. Its regular buildings increase from day to day with the population. The finest edifices are the cathedral, the government palace, the new town-house, the military school, the new exchange, and the university, the number of students at which is about 120. The number of professors is 15, whose salaries are paid in corn. In the hall of this establishment are annually held the sittings of the constitutional assembly, called the *Storthing*. Founded in 1813, it was intended as an university for the kingdom. Its library already

Christiana.

contains many thousand volumes;* it possesses, besides, a fine cabinet of natural philosophy, an observatory, a botanical garden, and a collection of natural history. Christiana is an episcopal see, the incumbent of which enjoys a revenue of L.700 sterling. There are in Christiana many benevolent institutions, and, amongst others, two orphan houses; one for those born in the city, the other called the house of *Anker*, embracing orphans throughout the whole kingdom. The latter, the most important of the whole, gives assistance to the modest poor, and to indigent families, educating, free of expense, those children whose parents have not the means of imparting it to them. Christiana enjoys a considerable foreign trade.

Frederikshall.

To the east of the mouth of the Glommen, near the frontiers of Sweden, *Frederikshall*, whose harbour can receive large vessels, has joined to its ancient name of *Halden* that of Frederic, given to it by Frederic III, in 1665, on account of its courageous defence against the Swedes. This is a neat town, with paved streets: the houses are of wood, and painted of different colours, as in Sweden. It stands prettily in a valley surrounded with rocks, on an arm of the sea, and carries on a considerable trade in timber. At the foot of its fortress, called *Frederiksteen*, Charles XII, of Sweden, was killed by a cannon-ball on the 11th of December 1718. In 1814 the Swedes raised a pyramid on the spot where this great captain expired. Charles XII has been styled a *great* man, but certainly with little propriety, if men understood their true interests aright. Has the experience of nearly 6000 years not yet convinced the world, that men such as Alexander of Macedon, Julius Cæsar, Timur, Charles XII, or Napoleon, whose only merit lies in the satisfying their own ambitious desires at whatever expense, have no claim to the name of great? and that it is only rightly bestowed when conferred on an Alfred, a Washington, a Granville Sharp, or a Howard — on men who, in some shape or other, have truly benefited and not destroyed their fellow creatures?

* The original has '80,000 volumes,' which, in so recent an institution, is most probably a mistake. A recent traveller says, 'many thousands.' — *Translator.*

BOOK CXLVII.

The Norwegian Isles may be comprised under the denomination of the *Norwegian Archipelago*,* and divided into three groups: those of Bergen and Drontheim, washed by the North Sea; and that of Lofoden, in the Icy Ocean. The first commences with the gulf of Bukfiord in the south: its principal islands are *Carmoé* and *Fidjé*, where, it is said, Harold, the first king of Norway, long had his residence. On a small island, part of this group, stands a stone cross of silver-white mica slate, about twelve feet high and four in breadth. Nothing is known of its history, but that it has stood there for centuries.† In the group of *Drontheim*, three islands are remarkable for their size: *Smoelen*, *Averoen* or *Frojen*, and *Hitteren*, the largest of the three; but the most celebrated are the small islands called *Vigten*, from whence departed, for the conquest of Normandy, the Norwegian or Norman chieftain Rolf, better known by the name Raoul or Rollo. The group of Lofoden Isles occupies a length of sixty leagues; the most considerable are the long *Andoen*, the irregular *Langoen*, and *Hindoen*, the most important of all; *Mageroe*, where the North Cape is; *Seyland*, where there is to be seen a peak of great elevation; *Soroe*, deeply indented by a great number of bays; and *Ost-Vaagen*, the central point of the important expedition, which, every year, during the months of February and March, assembles in these latitudes more than 20,000 fishermen. Between *Voeroe* and *Mosken Moskenoesoe* lies the dangerous whirlpool of *Mal-Stroem*, so dreaded by navigators.

The principal branch of Norwegian industry is undoubtedly the fishery: the annual exportations which the kingdom makes in herrings and cod, are valued at from six to seven millions of francs. In 1827 there were sent to England more than 1,100,000 lobsters. A recent traveller informs us, that the trade with London in these creatures is so great, that, all the way from Stadt Land to Lindenoes, an Englishman and a devourer of lobsters are almost synonymous terms. There is an English Lobster Company,

* M. A. Balbi first proposed this name and division.

† Rev. Robert Everest, Journey through Norway, &c. Lond. 1829.

and their agents are busy all along the coast. Twice or thrice a-week their packets sail from Christiansand.* The merchant of Bergen supplies Spain and Italy with that immense quantity of fish which are there consumed during lent. During the winter the Norwegian feeds even his cattle with the entrails of fish. By the sale of his iron, he purchases in the ports of the Baltic Sea the quantity of wheat necessary for his consumption; the British merchant buys up the masts and planks of Christiana; the pines of Drontheim, less esteemed, are carried off by the Irish. With these principal articles, and many others of less importance, the inhabitant of Norway procures to himself not only the comforts of life, but also the enjoyments of luxury: the women of the most retired vallies wear around their necks the hankerchiefs of Masulipatnam; in the Dovrefield mountains the hospitals are always abundantly supplied with tea, sugar and coffee; the rich cover their tables with the wines of Bourdeaux and Cyprus, with oranges from Malta, and raisins from Corinth. In fine, in this country, which is regarded as so poor, mahogany furniture, valuable porcelain, and curious eatables, are not more rare under the hospitable roof of the merchant of Bergen and Christiana, than in the house of the rich merchant of London, or the magnificent banker of Paris.

* Rev. Robert Everest, Journey through Norway, &c. Lond. 1829.

BOOK CXLVIII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Description of the Scandinavian Peninsula. Description of Sweden.

BOOK CXLVIII.

Laplanders.

THE character of the inhabitants of Sweden, and the physical constitution of the country, present more than one trait of resemblance to the people and climate of Norway. The *Laplanders*, who inhabit the northern parts of the Swedish monarchy, have been represented as men of short stature, with a swarthy or yellowish complexion, and a disagreeable physiognomy; but the view thus given of them is far from being correct. In the northern parts of Norwegian and Swedish Lapland, the people are much taller than in the south, yet their height does not exceed five feet two or three inches: their copper complexion is rather the result of a habitual residence in smoky huts than the character of a race. The Lapland mountaineers, who live almost always in the open air, have a skin slightly dark; the greater part of the females are even tolerably fair; and among both sexes there are seen figures as agreeable as among other nations. Their good temper is never failing; never does their cheerfulness forsake them. Their honesty is proof against every thing: amongst the Laplanders, robbery and murder are crimes almost unknown. They are laborious and naturally temperate; but cannot stand before the temptation of drinking strong liquors.* Travel-

* Reise durh das nœrdliche Schweden und Lapland, &c, von F. W. von Schubert. Leips. 1823.

lars tell us, that in *Westro-Bothnia*, physical strength and beauty distinguish the sexes; while an unbounded hospitality towards strangers, a cheerful temper, and an enterprising disposition, are qualities common to the whole population, which extends to the polar circle. The people of *Joemtland* have the light shape, the agility of body, and the fair hair of the Norwegians. The *Helsingian* is brave: in attacking the bear, he displays as much intrepidity as the mountaineer of Norway; and even the young shepherdess has been frequently known to defend her flock with success against one of these animals. It is true that, according to an old superstition, the bear can do nothing against a virgin. The people of *Nericia* have a melancholy and taciturn air: their disposition is a mixture of honesty and pride, distrust and obstinacy. In the provinces of *Upland*, of *Westmania*, and *Dalecarlia*, the population, renowned for its bravery, still preserves the physical characters of the most northern tribes; dark hair, sunk eyes, a look somewhat fierce, but full of expression and vivacity, muscles strongly marked, prominent bones, a stature almost gigantic. In *Westro-Gothia*, and above all, in *Gothia*, fair hair, blue eyes, a middle stature light and slim, a physiognomy indicating frankness, gentleness, and a certain sentimental elevation of mind, especially among the fair sex, are predominant. The people in the other provinces partake of these different physical and moral qualities.*

Westro-Bothnia. Jemtia or Joemtland. Helsingia. Nericia. Dalecarlia. Gothia or Gothland.

Sweden is separated from Norway by the mountains *Koelen*, *Svuku*, and *Seveberg*. The distance between these mountains and the sea being much greater than in Norway, the ground has less declivity, the rivers are considerably larger, and the lakes more numerous and of greater extent; yet none of the Swedish rivers surpass in length the Norwegian river, the Glommen; and the largest scarcely run a course of 100 leagues. One of the most considerable is the *Tornea*, which issues from the lake of that name, situated at the foot of the Koelen mountains, and among the rivers received by it, reckons the *Muonio*, the natural

Rivers.

* See Melanges Scientifiques et Literaires, tome i.

BOOK CXLVIII.

barrier that separates Sweden from Russia, as far as its junction with the Thornea, after which the Thornea forms the boundary of the two states. The *Lulea* and the *Umea* do not yield in length to the preceding. All these rivers, and many others that we do not name, cross the lakes with a great breadth of water, and throw themselves into the gulf of Bothnia. The most important lakes of the Scandinavian peninsula are, in the order of their size, the *Wener*, 35 leagues long by 20 broad; the *Moelar*, 25 leagues in length, and from 9 to 18 in breadth; the *Wetter*, 24 leagues in length, and from 6 to 7 in breadth; and the *Hielmar*, 16 leagues in length by 4 in breadth. All four are situated in southern Sweden; and the first (the Wener) is, after lakes Ladoga and Onega in the Russian empire, the largest lake in Europe. It gives rise to the *Goeta*, a small river, which, after making its way through steep rocks, forming frightful cataracts, throws itself into the Cattegat.

Lakes.

Canals.

There is no country in which it is more easy to form canals than Sweden; and, since the reign of Charles XI, the Swedish government has profited by the disposition of the ground, to multiply the means of water communication. The canal, which bears the name of the river *Arboga*, conducts its waters from lake Hielmar to lake Moelar; the canal of *Soedertlegen*, finished since 1819, unites the waters of the Moelar with those of the Baltic; the canal of *Woedden* shortens the navigation from the Gulf of Bothnia to the Baltic, by avoiding the dangerous arm of the sea situated between Sweden and the Aland Isles; that of *Almare-Stock*, finished in 1823, establishes a ready communication between Upsal and Stockholm.* Other canals have been executed, or commenced, with a view of making several rivers navigable, and rendering more valuable the immense forests situated in the northern provinces; but the most important of these works is the canal of *Goeta*, now almost completed, which, assisted by several small lakes, will open an easy passage between lake Wetter and the Baltic Sea.

* Consult the Summary of the Reports made to the king of Sweden and Norway upon the public works executed in 1823. Revue Encyclopedique de 1824.

It may be noticed here, that the roads in Sweden are admitted by travellers to be excellent, and inferior to none in Europe.

Roads.

In the Baltic sea Sweden possesses two important islands; *Oeland* and *Gothland*. The first is separated from the main land by the strait of Calmar. It is in length thirty leagues by from three to five in breadth. Its soil is composed of schistous, silicious, and calcareous rocks. Its valleys are pleasant and well watered. It is rich in pasturage and meadow-ground; and supports much cattle. Its population is numerous. Gothland, much more considerable than the other, being 25 leagues in length and 10 in breadth, is a calcareous and sandy platform from 150 to 200 feet in height, from which there arise hills, whose bare and dry summits have nearly the same elevation; one of these hills, called *Hoborg*, contains a great number of caverns. Gothland is watered by several lakes and rivers; one of which, called the *Lummelund*, issues from the small lake of *Marteboen*, flows for some time in a subterranean canal, and by a mouth of 12 feet in breadth, throws itself into the sea. The climate is much milder than that of those parts of Sweden lying in the same latitude. The island is rich in forests and in game, in arable land and in cattle; merinos are there perfectly naturalized, and goats attain a great height. Agriculture is susceptible of great improvements; but as the island possesses no noble families, and is divided into many small properties, the inhabitants live at ease and procure colonial merchandise, wine and other objects of primary necessity, in exchange for their wood, tar, marble, fish, cattle, and the excellent turnips which it raises. *Huen*, a small island at the entrance of the Sound, is remarkable on other accounts; let us only notice, however, that here lived the celebrated Tycho-Brahé, and here he constructed the observatory, to which he gave the name of *Uranienbourg*.

Oeland. Gothland. Huen.

The physical constitution of Sweden has been the subject of the observations of several distinguished naturalists; one of whom, in a work drawn up with much precision and distinctness, gives so just a view of it, that we can in a few

Geology.

BOOK CXLVIII.

words trace its principal characters.* We have already seen that *gneiss* and *granite* predominate in the mountains, which we consider as forming the *Scandinavian* range. Wherever these two sorts of rock are seen, they alternately change places, the one passing insensibly into the other, as if they had been formed at the same time; but the first always occupies an extent much more considerable than the second. Granite, however, appears chiefly by itself on the banks of the Muonio, on the coasts of the Baltic to the north of Calmar, and in the provinces of Upland, of Westmania, and of East and West Gothland. Gneiss incloses the richest veins of iron, copper, and led mixed with silver, that are worked in Sweden; this rock contains a much greater number of strata of other rocks than is to be found elsewhere; in the mountains these strata dip from north-east to south-west. The oldest earths containing organic remains are, in Sweden, much more extended in proportion to their thickness, than in the other countries of Europe: we there see succeeding each other compact calcareous strata enclosing the spoils of those marine animals, called *orthoceratites*, argillaceous schisti containing the small organized bodies which were first named by Linnaeus *graptolothi*, and belonging to the same family as the preceding; lastly, sandstone and different sorts of rocks formed of various agglomerated substances. Dalecarlia, Jempteland, Nericia, and East Gothland are covered with these ancient deposits. In Scania we see formations less ancient, comprehending carbonized earths and limestone composed of shells of the ancient sea, the *muschelkalk* of the Germans, to which succeed, in the order of their formation, gravelly and calcareous strata, as well as thick beds of chalk. In this province, rocks which bear the marks of an igneous original, cross the different earths, and appear on the surface of the soil. On the soil of this province, one of our savans† has recognised in the vast transported earths, (*terrains de transport*) com-

Rocks, &c.

Transported earths.

* See the Introduction to the Mineralogical Geography of Sweden, by M. Hisenger, translated into German by Dr Woehler.

† M. Al. Brongniart. See his 'Notice sur les blocs de roches des terrains de transport in Suède. Ann. des Sciences Naturelles.' tome xiv.

posed of sand, rounded pebbles, and enormous masses of granite rocks, (the accumulation of which forms here and there, in the environs of Upsal, on the borders of Lake Wener, and as far as the Sound, those hills called *ose* in Swedish,) the origin of the deposits of the same nature which cover the dutchy of Mecklenburg, Pomerania, and the Russian Provinces, as far as the mouth of the Neva. Thus, from Norway and Sweden have come down, dragged along by the vast currents of water, those remains *(debris)* which one is astonished to find on both sides of the Baltic, and which undoubtedly were there when that sea had no existence, or, when the country, more covered with forests than at present, and consequently colder, beheld the Sound and other straits covered with ice, and presenting during the rigours of winter, a road quite open to these eruptions. In conclusion, one word will suffice to give an idea of the mineral riches of the Swedish iron mines. They are wrought in the open air like stone quarries, and it is calculated, that they will scarcely be exhausted in fifteen centuries.

Animals.

From the similarity of climate, it is to be expected, that the animals which are found in Norway, will also be found in Sweden, and, accordingly, this is the case. The bear and the wolf have their abode in Sweden, as well as in Norway, and the latter especially is destructive, attacking not only the feebler animals, but sometimes man himself. The elk has become a rare animal, but is still met with; and the rein-deer exists in abundance, in the northern parts of the country, especially among the Laplanders. The domestic animals are in general small, but strong and useful, Fish in great variety and abundance are to be found in all the waters. The eagle and falcon are frequent in the northern and more inaccessible parts; and domestic fowls, and the smaller birds, are to be met with, as in Great Britain.

Vegetation.

What we have said of the vegetation of Norway, applies to that of Sweden. We will add, however, after the researches of a learned botanist,* that the primrose (*primula elatior*), which flourishes in our woods in the early days of

* M. Fries, author of a memoir, entitled, 'Excursions Botanique dans quelques Provinces de la Suède.'

BOOK CXLVIII.

spring, is common in Scania; that the common maple (*acer campestre*), the smallest of this species, grows by the side of some of our forest trees; that the humble asarabacca (*asarum Europeum*) is found creeping on the surface of the ground in sandy soils; that the hypericum (*St John's-wort*) shows itself with its yellow flower in the sands of Bleking; that the almond-leaved willow (*salix amygdalina*), with its flexible branches, abounds in moist grounds, and sees growing at its feet the lively mouse-ear, with flowers of the most beautiful blue. About the 62d or 63d degree of latitude, fruit-trees cease to prosper; the cherry-tree becomes a sorry shrub; but nature has multiplied beyond this latitude, and even to the northern extremities of Sweden, along with several wild small fruits known to the rest of Europe, two species, whose delicious fruits would be tasted with pleasure, even in our own climates. The one is the *rubus arcticus;* its refreshing berry, sweet and aromatic, holds a place between the strawberry and the raspberry. It has been in vain attempted to cultivate it throughout Sweden: they say that it has been given to northern Bothnia, to indemnify it for the fruit-trees it wants. The other, more widely diffused, the *rubus chamaemorus*, descends to the 60th degree. It supplies the Swedes with a kind of lemonade both pleasant and wholesome. The abundance of these berries, and the benefit derived from them, have prodigiously increased their use.

Agriculture.

Every part of Sweden, lying between the Sound and the course of the Dala, has made within the last twenty years great progress in agriculture; producing wheat, rye, barley, oats, and farinaceous vegetables, in sufficiently great abundance. In Dalecarlia, in Jemteland, and in Angermania, they cultivate everywhere flax, hemp, and potatoes; but to the north of these provinces, the insufficiency of crops compells the inhabitants to mix with their grain the bark of the *pinus silvestris* (Scotch fir), to procure a greater supply of food.

Climate.

The climate of Sweden, generally less severe than that of Norway, is always a subject of astonishment to a stranger. In Gothland, the mildness of the temperature, and the fertility of the soil, have so favoured reproduction, that

although this province is scarcely equal to a fourth of the whole kingdom, its population forms nearly two-thirds of it. At Stockholm, the German does not find those fogs, which extend over a great part of Germany; the Frenchman does not regret the climate of the north of France; he does not even feel those rough and frequent changes, which lessen the pleasure of an abode at Paris. In the capital of the kingdom, the longest days and nights are eighteen hours and a half. At Calix, near the northern frontier, the winter lasts nine months, and the summer three, which terminate with the month of September; the sun never quits the horizon during the period of the longest days, and never shows himself during that of the shortest. In general the air of Sweden is pure, and the ravages of contagious diseases are never experienced. The beauty of a warm and dry summer, which, during its short duration, sees the frost disappear all at once, and almost instantaneously the vegetation adorned with leaves and flowers, makes it a matter of forgetfulness that spring is there unknown. Southern Europe, it may be said with justice, knows nothing of that mild clearness of a Northern morning or evening, that soft disappearance of the rays of the sun reflected in an ocean of purple clouds, and nights which are embellished by the feeble light of twilight, to the moment when the dawn of morning shows itself in the east.

Seasons.

Let us now survey Sweden in all its extent; let us visit its cities, and sketch the manners of its principal provinces; and when, after having arrived at the southern extremity of the Scandinavian peninsula, we have examined its institutions, its industry, and its commerce, the reader will be prepared to appreciate the Swedish monarchy, under all its relations.

The cities of Sweden are in general thinly peopled; nor ought this to astonish us. That crowd of idle people, who spend in the heart of towns their pensions, or the revenue of their lands, is unknown in Sweden. The proprietors of land, and even the nobility, enjoy in the country, and in the bosom of their family, all the sweets of domestic life and rural occupations, abandoning the towns and sea-ports to manufacturers and merchants. *Lulea*, or *Luleo*, in North-

Cities and towns.

Lulea.

BOOK CXLVIII.

his forests are peopled with excellent game; his rivers are full of fish and delicate salmon; his exports in iron and hemp are considerable. His habitations are commodious, substantial, and furnished with every thing necessary; among the rich, one apartment is ordinarily full of more linen and clothes than a family can use in an age. Order and foresight are leading virtues of this people.

Upsal.

In approaching *Upsal*, we perceive on a rising ground a castle built by Gustavus (Vasa) I. *Upsal* or *Upsala*, formerly called *Œster-Åros*, is watered by the small river Fyrisa. It is celebrated for its university, founded in the fifteenth century, where there are sixty professors, and more than 800 students. Its situation in a fertile plain, fifteen leagues from Stockholm, is favourable to an establishment of this kind, which, as far as possible, ought to be placed at a distance from the objects of temptation always to be found in a capital. Linnaeus, Cronstadt, Bergmann, Wallerius, and several other great men, have filled chairs in Upsal. The buildings occupied by the university are, without contradiction, the finest in the city. The Gustavian academy, erected by the orders of Gustavus Adolphus, contains a library of 80,000 volumes, besides a valuable collection of manuscripts. In the hall allotted for this purpose, there are to be seen two coffers deposited there by Gustavus III, and to be opened fifty years after his death. In 1842,* that time will have arrived. The same building contains an anatomical amphitheatre: to an observatory, finely situated, there is annexed a considerable library, composed of astronomical works; the chemical and physical laboratory, the museum of natural history, and the new botanic garden, are very rich collections. The university buildings also comprehend fencing and dancing halls, besides a magnificent riding-school. The present crown prince of Sweden, Oscar, received his education at Upsal, and resided while there in the palace of the archbishop. The city likewise possesses other useful establishments; the society of sciences, founded in 1712 by Eric Berzelius, first librarian

* In orig. 1830. But Gustavus was assassinated March 1792, and fifty years from that brings us to 1842. — *Trans.*

and afterwards archbishop of Upsal; the cathedral school, a kind of secondary school, where are taught literature and the sciences; Sunday schools, which are held in one of the halls belonging to the sacristy of the cathedral; a school for the poor; a house of voluntary labour for the indigent; a private institution for the relief of persons of distinction, principally females, the victims of the vicissitudes of fortune; an hospital for invalids, of which one part serves as a house of correction; and lastly, a Bible society. Upsal is the seat of an archbishop, with a revenue of upwards of L.1000 sterling. The house and garden of Linnaeus are still shown to travellers.

The houses of Upsal are built, some of stone, and some of wood; the best have gardens, from whence there is an extensive view of the neighbouring country. The streets are wide and straight, particularly those which lead to its large and superb square. The cathedral is the largest and most magnificent church in the Swedish monarchy: its gothic architecture resembles that of Notre Dame at Paris. It was commenced in 1258, and finished in 1435. It is covered with sheets of copper. Its length is 330 feet, its breadth 140, and its height 105. At the entrance of this church, we see the figure of St Olof, king of Sweden, trampling under foot a monster, a symbol of idolatry; and in the nave, the Swedish sovereigns were formerly crowned, and assumed the title of kings of Upsal. The interior of this edifice is filled with tombs and other objects of still greater interest. Near the altar, repose the ashes of Olaüs-Petri the Swedish reformer; a little farther off, a monument of alabaster incloses the remains of Gustavus Vasa and his three wives. *Here* we see the silver coffin of Eric IX, and the sarcophagi of several Swedish kings: *there*, the magnificent marble monument erected to the memory of Baron Charles de Geer, the historian and naturalist, presents itself: another monument is remarkable for its simplicity — that of Linnaeus, erected in 1798 by the friends of that great man. In the two sacristies, other objects strike the eyes: one contains the portraits of the most celebrated Swedish ecclesiastics; in the other we see the dress worn by the unfortunate Nils Sture, so unjustly accused of treason by

Upsal cathedral.

Curiosities of this cathedral.

BOOK CXLVIII.

Eric XIV, and poignarded by the hand of that prince in the castle of Upsal; the whetstone, three feet in length, sent in derision by Albert of Mecklenburgh, king of Sweden to Margaret, queen of Denmark,—an intimation to lay aside her sword, and attend to the sharpening her needles; and the colours which she sent him in return, patched with bits of her shifts. It is known that Albert called Margaret *the breechless queen*, and that this epigramatic war terminated in the battle of Falkoeping, in which victory placed the crown of Sweden upon the head of Margaret. Another apartment contains several objects of great value, such as a gilded cross, containing a piece of the wood of the true cross sent by pope Alexander III; a golden cup seventeen inches in height, enriched with diamonds, which was taken at Prague by Koenigsmark; and an old wooden idol, representing the god Thor. Gustavus Vasa erected a magnificent palace at Upsal, the greater part of which was consumed by fire in 1702, leaving only one wing habitable, where the king resides when he visits this city.

Anno 1396.

Stockholm.

Nature, munificent in her gifts, has collected with so much prodigality in the environs of Stockholm situations the most diversified, that this city appears as if placed in the middle of a large and magnificent garden. On one side arise majestic mountains adorned by the sombre foliage of the pine-tree, mixed with the bushy branches of the elm and oak, while, on the other, a pleasant valley opens to the view. *Here* the lake Moelar spreads out her surface irregularly indented by gulfs and promontories, and covered with a multitude of granite rocks, some of them steep and bare, others decorated with villas and clumps of trees; *there* arises a forest on a declivity adorned with verdure; farther off the eye rests on little hills or islands. Palaces, the summer residences of the royal family, country-houses and gardens, animate the landscape. The capital of Sweden is in a situation singular and romantic, which strikes all strangers with surprize. It occupies two peninsulas, and several islands washed by the Moelar, at the bottom of the gulf where that lake discharges itself into the Baltic Sea; and hence Stockholm has been called the Venice of the north. Canute, son of Eric the Holy, laid the founda-

Surrounding country

tions of Stockholm towards the close of the twelfth century, in a spot which then contained only miserable huts of fishermen, with the view of making it a place of defence against the attacks of pirates. The *Norrmalm* and *Soedermalm*, its two principal suburbs, occupy several islands, and are partly built upon piles. Its ten divisions are separated by different arms of the Moelar and by the sea; but they communicate with each other by thirteen good stone bridges, besides several others of wood; many houses are surrounded by gardens, the walls of which extend to the water edge; others, as in Soedermalm, lean upon rocks which, higher than the roofs, rise up like walls in the middle of these islands. Stockholm is irregularly built; the greater part of it is of stone and brick, but many of the houses are of wood painted red. Its twenty public squares are small and inelegant; Norrmalm contains the widest and finest streets, the largest of which is the *Drottninggata*, adorned by the fronts of several palaces. The harbour, defended by two forts, is difficult of access, but within it is spacious and safe; the water is clear as crystal, and so deep that the largest ships can go to its very extremity in the centre of the city, and unlade their cargoes on the quay, surrounded by fine houses and vast warehouses. Many streets in the city rise in a circuit, one above another, on the declivity of a hill, and form a fine amphitheatre crowned by the king's palace. This building, from its foundation to the sixteenth century, was a fortress. It has been repeatedly rebuilt since; the date of the last rebuilding being 1753. It is a square building, four stories in height, flanked with two wings, built in a superb style, and filled with rich furniture and collections of so great a value, that it may be compared to the finest regal abodes in Europe. There are many curiosities preserved in this place: amongst others, the cradle and small garden-carriage of Charles XII, with the clothes, stained with blood, worn by him when he fell at the siege of Fredericstein in Norway, his hat pierced with a musket-shot, and his walking cane; the masquerade costume worn by Gustavus III, on the night of his assassination; the clothes of the great Gustavus Adolphus, with the swords of several of the

Royal Palace.

BOOK CXLVIII.

Swedish monarchs. The chapel is a very splendid one: there every year, on the 20th of December, they celebrate a festival in honour of Gustavus Adolphus, to keep up the remembrance of the noble perseverance, with which that monarch fought for the liberty of the protestant communion. The royal library contains 40,000 volumes, besides numerous manuscripts, and possesses the prayer-book of the emperor Ferdinand the Second, one of the trophies of Gustavus Adolphus during the thirty years' war, and the copy of the Vulgate Bible, which belonged to Luther, with notes in his own handwriting. The collection of paintings is composed of different works of the great masters of the Italian school, and of the best Swedish painters. The museum of antiquities is rich in Grecian statues and in medals. At the foot of the platform occupied by the palace, stands the statue of Gustavus III, erected by the burgesses of Stockholm; and in the square of Riddarholmen, there is a bronze statue of Gustavus Vasa. The square of Gustavus Adolphus is decorated with a bronze statue of that prince on horseback; and in the Royal Garden, we see that of Charles XIII, cast at Paris in 1821. The beautiful church of St Nicholas; that of Riddarholmen (*l'Isle des Chevaliers*), decorated with 5000 foreign standards, and inclosing the ashes of several kings, and of the most celebrated Swedish generals; and the great church or cathedral, called *Storkyrka*, are buildings of the first order. The last is the most ancient: it has been used for the coronation of the Swedish kings, since that ceremony ceased to be performed at Upsal. Its altar, incrusted with gold, silver, and ivory, representing the birth of Christ; its chandelier of silver, weighing 78 pounds; the plume and spur of St Olof — are only a few of the curiosities to be seen there. Join to these edifices, the magnificent building of the exchange, — the opera-house, where Gustavus III was assassinated, — the hotel-de-ville, — the mint, — the immense building where iron is stored, — the artillery-park, — the docks and the admiralty, — the palace of the princess Sophia, sister to Gustavus III, — and, at the northern extremity of Drottninggata, on an isolated rock, the beautiful building of the observatory: and is it not a matter of

Squares.

Cathedral.

Useful institutions.

regret, that the greater part of the private buildings in the city are so little in harmony with the beauty of these public monuments? Our limits oblige us to pass by the central veterinary institution, — the forest institution, intended for forming able scholars, — the scientific collections, — the learned societies, such as the academy of sciences and that of belles-lettres, — and schools of medicine, of mineralogy, and others no less useful. Among the philanthropic societies, supported by the wisdom of government, and by the zeal of individuals, we can only mention the society 'Pro Patria,' the object of which is to promote virtue amongst all classes; for this purpose, distributing silver medals, as a reward for the long and laborious labours of teachers of primary schools, the services of midwives, the good behaviour of workmen and servants, and the attention of the farmers and peasantry in endeavouring to improve and bring agriculture to perfection.

The commerce of Stockholm is of great importance. This city, sheltered from the breath of winds, ought to be healthy, yet the mortality is greater, in proportion to its population, than any other capital in Europe; the cause can only be ascribed to the exhalations from the waters and from the marshy grounds that surround it. We have spoken of the royal palaces that are seen in approaching to its walls: that of *Drottningholm* is the finest; it presents some resemblance to that of Versailles; but its position on the northern point of the island Lofoe, in Lake Moelar, the beauty of its gardens, the abundance of its waters, render it much more remarkable. *Carlsberg*, on the borders of the lake, is distinguished also as a royal dwelling, but especially for its military school, which contains 200 pupils. *Haga*, a small lodge surrounded by enchanting prospects, is the ordinary residence of the king during the fine season. Lastly, the beautiful residence of the *Botanical Villa* is that to which he prefers inviting strangers who are presented to him.

Œrebro. Carlstad.

After quitting the borders of Lake Moelar, we see *Œrebro* near the Hielmar, and *Carlstad*, on the banks of the Wener. These two, which are places of note, but with a population of from only 2000 to 3000 souls, possess, like the

BOOK CXLVIII.

greater part of the Swedish cities, more educational establishments than are to be seen in larger cities of France. Œrebro is occasionally the place of meeting of the Swedish Diet, and contains, besides other schools, a normal one, and an agricultural society. Carlstad is a pretty town, and possesses, like Œrebro, an agricultural society, besides an academy, an observatory, and a cabinet of natural history. *Wenersberg*, at the southern extremity of Lake Wener, is one of the principal marts for iron. It is a small, but neat town, with a spacious square. The houses are of wood, and painted, as in many Swedish towns, of different colours. The Lake Wener presents here the appearance of a sea, and like the sea is ruffled with tempests, and the navigation often dangerous. *Nykoeping*, with a small harbour on the Baltic, exports cannon and bullets: In its old castle, a part of which is used for a prison, Birger king of Sweden, who showed himself an able prince, but whose talents formed no apology for his crimes, caused, in 1318, two of his brothers to be imprisoned, and starved to death.

Linkoeping.

Linkoeping, in one of the most fertile plains of East Gothland, is regularly built; several fairs, well frequented, are held there; its academy possesses a fine library, besides a museum of natural history and antiquities; its cathedral is, next to that of Upsal, the largest and finest in the kingdom.

Joenkoeping.

Joenkoeping, well built upon the southern bank of the lake Wetter, possesses several regular streets since it was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1790.

Gottenburg.

Gottenburg, or Gotheborg, is reckoned the second city in Sweden, but from its situation and the excellence of its harbour, with the actual extent of business carried on, may probably, in a commercial point of view, be regarded the first. It lies in the province of West Gothland, near the mouth of the river Goeta or Goetha, in the Cattegat, and was once strongly fortified, but its fortifications have fallen into disrepair. It is built, partly on a rocky eminence, and partly on a marshy plain: the streets are in straight lines, and in the principal ones a canal generally runs through the middle, large enough to admit vessels of considerable size, which can thus be unloaded close to the houses of their owners. Four bridges connect one part of the town with another,

and in many of the streets trees are planted, creating altogether a resemblance between this city and those in Holland. The population exceeds 20,000. Gottenburg has at different times suffered severely from fire arising from the houses having been built chiefly of wood. Since 1746 almost all the new buildings have been of stone or brick, but even subsequently to that year destructive fires have taken place. One fire in 1804 consumed two hundred houses, and another in 1813 one hundred. In general the houses are two or three stories in height. The principal buildings are the cathedral, the town-house, and the governor's house. It is a bishop's see, and the revenue may be about L.750 sterling per annum. The burial-grounds here are at some distance from the town, and tastefully laid out in walks planted with trees. The foreign trade of Gottenburg is considerable: iron and timber are the principal articles of export, and the herring fishery is carried on to a considerable extent. Six newspapers are published here. Many English and Scotch merchants are settled in Gottenburg. *Uddevalla*, to the north of Gottenburg, is a neat, clean town, beautifully situated in a bay, with an extensive amphitheatre of rocky hills in the back ground, and carries on some trade in timber. *Helmstadt*, situated, like Gottenburg, on the borders of the Cattegat, would be of importance, were not its harbour chocked with sand and pebbles. *Lund*, lying near the hill of Lybers, on which the ancient Goths elected their kings, possesses a university. *Malmoe*, the principal town in Scania, is peopled by Germans and Swedes, possesses some fine houses occupied by merchants, and one of its two churches, dedicated to St Peter, is large and magnificent. There is, in that church, a superb monument erected to the merchant Tullstroem, who bequeathed the one half of his property for the building of an organ, and the other for the support of several benevolent institutions. *Christianstadt*, the handsome head quarter of a prefecture, at the bottom of an inlet of the Baltic, is strongly fortified, but its trade is inconsiderable. It was founded in 1614 by Christian IV, king of Denmark. Its church is very neat: a part of its building arose from the subscriptions of the inhabitants, who, hav-

Uddevalla.

Helmstadt.

Lund.

Malmoe.

Christianstadt.

BOOK CXLVIII.

ing learned with joy, in 1814, that Norway and Sweden were united, caused to be engraved upon the church the arms and names of the different members of the royal family: Charles XIII, Charles John, Francis Oscar, and Eugenia Bernardine. *Carlscrona* is the principal military port of the kingdom. It contains more than one hundred ships of war. For its defence a strong fortress has been constructed, and with the view of forming sailors, a school for ship-boys has been founded. The town is pretty enough, but, with the exception of those in the neighbourhood of the admiralty, almost all its streets are deserted. The old basin or dock is deserving of notice, being dug out of the rock: it is eighty feet in depth, and two hundred in breadth; it is easily rendered dry, when necessary to repair vessels. The new dock, constructed in the same way, is not inferior to the other; and is in part covered with a roofing of copper. The arsenal, no less remarkable, contains models of ships of all classes and of all nations: in the armoury is preserved a variety of armour used by the ancient Goths: the sabres of these ancestors of the Swedes are four inches in breadth. The church of the admiralty, which is built of wood, is not the finest in the city, but very large, being able to contain five thousand persons.

Carlscrona.

On the coast of the strait formed by the Island of Œland and the main land, stands *Calmar*, regularly built, although the greater part of its houses are of wood. Its finest edifice is the cathedral, erected in the centre of a large square, and whose bold arched roof is supported without pillars. Its old castle, situated in the suburbs, was formerly esteemed one of the keys of the kingdom: it is celebrated in the history of Sweden for the Congress of 20th July 1397, at which the fatal act of union was agreed to, which placed Sweden and Norway under the power of the Crown of Denmark. The hall where this congress assembled serves as a reserve store-house; and the rest of the building has been transformed into a house of correction and industry. Opposite this building floats the banner of the united kingdom of Sweden and Norway, announcing the happiness of two friendly nations and the wisdom of a prince, who has accomplished a union better compacted than that of Calmar. Calmar has several tan-works

Calmar.

Union of Calmar.

and manufactories of cloth; but it formerly possessed a trade much more considerable than at present: its harbour, small but secure, is sheltered to the south by Cape Stensoe, where Gustavus Vasa landed in 1520, to deliver his country from a tyrannical yoke. Louis XVIII, during his exile, fixed himself some time at Calmar, where his misfortunes and his affability gained him all hearts. A worthy admirer of the virtues that distinguished the Swedish hero, he caused a stone, bearing an inscription written by himself, to be erected to the memory of Gustavus.

Wisby.

The Island of Gothland, which of itself forms a department, has for its capital Wisby, the only town in the island, the whole industry of which consists in marble-works, and the whole trade by sea in a few small vessels. Many antiquities found in its environs, and in other parts of the island, give room to believe that it was inhabited by those warlike Goths, who made themselves masters of the finest provinces of the Roman empire, and, who also inhabiting Gothland proper, or Southern Sweden, sent out those armed colonies, which founded several kingdoms in the south of Europe.

Manners of Southern Sweden.

The philosopher of Geneva has said, that we ought to visit the south in summer and the north in winter. The capital of Sweden presents, during this season, a scene of activity difficult to describe: we have already seen, that the commencement of frost is the signal for the inhabitants of the interior of the Scandinavian Peninsula immediately to resort to the cities. The society of Stockholm, at all times animated by the most cordial politeness, and the most unaffected cheerfulness, but in general not numerous, becomes so when the long frosts have recovered their empire. Entertainments and pleasure-parties succeed each other day after day; the borders of lake Moelar are covered with sledges, which, in circuitous courses wander in long files over the frozen waters, or the snow that whitens the fields; a military band of music accompanies these joyous carriages, which, after dinner, return to the city by torch light. In the evening crowds repair to the theatre, to witness the representation of some national comedy. On the first of May, a stranger sees with astonishment the suburban walks of the capital covered with

Fêtes and amusements.

BOOK CXLVIII.

a triple row of brilliant equipages, which remind one of the splendour that reigns during the three last days of Passion-week, on the road from Longchamp to Paris. During the summer, a select society assembles at the waters of *Ramlosa* in Scania, and at those of *Mederi* in East Gothland, where the attraction of a military spectacle, a powerful one to a people naturally warlike, draws the curious to the camps where the national troops are exercised. These meetings do not resemble any of those that take place in our climates: an eye-witness of these festivals tells us, that dinners under the tent and balls in the open air succeed military evolutions; the sound of the violin mixes itself with the rolling of the drum: valour and beauty there divide empire.

Education.

The Scandinavian Peninsula, much more enlightened than France, surpasses in information not only Prussia but the British isles: in Norway, the system of mutual instruction is spread over the most remote parts of the country; saving-banks are established in every province; granaries for the surplus grain are to be found in different places; prison discipline has brought back to honourable sentiments unfortunate beings formerly hardened in crime. In Sweden every peasant can read, all know their rights, all join to a reasonable attachment to their religion, an attachment no less ardent to a form of government, which has for ages protected their liberty. Besides, there is little depravity of manners, especially out of cities; and thus no need for those restraining measures, which, under the guise of maintaining tranquillity, are too often made use of to render legitimate the abuse of force, when we ought only to have in view the rule of order and justice. The security of roads is not intrusted to géndarmes: this military police is in Sweden unknown, because it is there useless: at intervals we meet with peace-officers, to whom the inhabitants lend their aid when necessary. The recruiting of the army is done by publishing in the churches the names of those who ought to make part of the militia, and this simple appeal is enough to lead the youth to complete the number wanted.* The

Police.

* Men from twenty to twenty-five years of age are obliged to serve. They form five classes.

taxes are levied in the same way, by announcing from the pulpit the quota of each citizen: these burdens, which press equally upon all, do not amount to more than five per cent on income: indirect taxes are unknown. The Swedish navy occupies the third rank in Europe; it draws its recruits from the merchant service, and, although not considerable, because government is not sufficiently rich to increase the matériel, yet, to give an idea of its merit, suffice it to say, that on equal terms a Swedish ship of war has the advantage over a Russian.

Navy.

The laws are wise, clear, and precise. Excepting some modifications adopted under Gustavus III, (who abolished the torture) and under the successors of that prince, the code in use is that which was drawn up early in the eighteenth century, during the reign of Frederic I. The punishishment of death is not abolished, but the application of it is rare, because there are fewer murders committed in Sweden than elsewhere, and this punishment is not pronounced but when the accused makes confession of his crime. In civil cases, the two parties pay each their proportion of the expense: he who loses is never found liable in the expense. A new code of laws is about to be discussed by the Diet.

Laws.

The constitution fixed under the reign of Gustavus III, the consequence of the revolution which baffled the plans of the senate and nobility, serves as the basis of the Swedish government. The monarchical power is hereditary; but females are excluded. The king of Sweden is perhaps, of all constitutional monarchs in Europe, the one whose power is most limited. He does not attain majority till twenty-one; from his eighteenth year to that age, he may sit in the different councils, but he has no deliberative voice; if he place himself at the head of the armies, or if he quit the kingdom from any other motive, he must confide the administration to a regency, composed of four members of the council of state and of the minister of justice. If his absence lasts more than a year, or if any indisposition prevents him during the same space of time from attending to business, the Council of State convokes the diet (*Stoenderne*) or the States General, which must adopt some measure

Government 1772.

BOOK CXLVIII.

for the security of the country. Until this is done, the foreign ambassadors cannot approach within twenty-four leagues of the place where the States are assembled. The Senate or Court of Peers is composed of twenty-two members. Twelve counsellors of the crown form a council corresponding to our Council of State; it gives its advice, and the king decides.* The king appoints to all employments, and has the right of conferring pardons; but he cannot make any new laws, or interpret old ones, raise taxes, or declare war, without the consent of the states, which he alone has the power of convoking. No judgment can be given by a warrant. The law guarantees the rights and property of the citizens. The liberty of the press is among the number of fundamental laws, which cannot be modified without the participation of both monarch and states. The States have under their management the public debt and the national bank. They are composed of four orders: the noblesse, in which order each noble family has its representative; the clergy, represented by the bishops, as well as by the pastors chosen in each chapter; the burgesses, whose deputies are chosen by the principal towns in the kingdom; and the peasantry, chosen by themselves in their assemblies. Each deputy must be 25 years complete, must belong to one of these orders, and profess the protestant religion. The deputies of the nobility are the most numerous, an inconvenience modified by an important regulation, which does not admit of voting individually, but by orders. The States assemble usually every five years, unless in the case of extraordinary circumstances.

Council of State.

States-General.

The kingdom of Norway participates in the advantages which this constitution presents, and which in time the progress of light will without doubt improve, but it has only one legislative chamber (*Storthing*,) whose members enjoy no distinction one above another.

Industry and trade.

Industry is little drawn out in Sweden, and still less in Norway. There are reckoned in Sweden only 7000 manufacturers of all kinds, and 3000 traders. The government

* Sveriges och Norriges Calender for aret 1829: Almanack of Sweden and Norway for 1829.

has for several years made the greatest efforts to encourage the manufacture of steel and of cloth, of glass and china, but the amount of these is far from supplying the consumption of the country, an unanswerable argument against the partisans of the prohibitory system. It would be more advantageous for Sweden to abandon several branches of manufacture, which are only supported by a system of severe custom-house regulations, and to give more scope to the working her mines of iron, copper, and cobalt; — to her trade in wood for building, which may be regarded as a source of inexhaustible riches, if the re-production of the forests is attended to; — to the manufacture of mathematical and philosophical instruments, for which Stockholm enjoys some celebrity; — to her tan-works, and manufacture of gloves, a branch of industry in which the Swedes have few rivals; — to her foundries, which procure for her so great advantages; — to her cordage manufacture, in which the town of Fahlun excels; — to the making of vases, and other ornamental articles in porphyry, which occupies a part of the population of *Elfevedal*, in the prefecture of Stora Kopparberg; — to the productive fishery of the cod and the herring; — in fine, to the building of ships, so much in request by foreigners. The extension of these different branches of industry would present to her means of augmenting her trade, already so important, and would procure her a crowd of articles which she cannot fabricate at the same price with other nations. By this means she would also give up the prohibition of wine, tea, rum, and other commodities foreign to her climate, a prohibition which has no other advantage than to keep up bands of smugglers; by this means she would also find, in more extended relations, the means of increasing the productions of a soil, where agriculture is perhaps more advanced than in any other agricultural country, and which even exports corn; by this means, too, she would increase the advantages which she has, of transporting in her vessels, to different parts of Europe, as well as to her own, the merchandise of foreign nations. But the Swedish nation may expect every thing from the future; the accomplishment of her wishes has nothing to fear from Gothic prejudices; the States are unanimous in their desires

BOOK CXLVIII.

to secure the public prosperity. The stubborn partisans of commercial restrictions have not been able to prevent the reduction of duties on colonial commodities imported by the North Americans; freedom of trade is on the eve of being proclaimed in Sweden.

Ameliorations.

The government favours everywhere the use of vaccination, the division of lands, the draining of marshes, the establishment of colonies to render useful the lands newly brought under culture, the cultivation of the oak, and the ameliorating the quality of wool. Canals and roads are multiplying; measures are adopting to render more equal, and consequently more supportable, the burden of military service;* the organization of communes and departments is undergoing the changes desired by the people;† the lands are almost all of them registered; steam-vessels establish frequent communications betwen the maritime towns;‡ in fine, the increase of population since 1821 is such, that in 61 years it will be doubled;§ an evident proof of general prosperity. We may then say with confidence, that the people of Sweden and Norway enjoy, under the protection of a government constitutionally free, a happiness guaranteed by the present generation to posterity.

* In Norway the conscription has been several years established; the duration of military service is from five to seven years.

† See Account of the general administration of the kingdom, dated at the palace of Stockholm, the 15th Nov. 1828. Bulletin des Sciences de Fevrier 1829.

‡ Report made by the minister of the interior to the last legislative assembly of Norway.

§ Report of the Royal Commission for Statistics, made to the king on population, &c. Stockholm 1828. Bulletin des Sciences de Mars 1829.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF

THE SWEDISH MONARCHY.

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*Table of the Divisions, Geographical, and Administrative, ancient and modern, of the Scandinavian Peninsula.**

KINGDOM OF SWEDEN.

SURFACE, 22,051 SQUARE LEAGUES.

Population per square league, 127 inhabitants.

I. SOUTHERN REGION — Gothland or Gothia.§

Ancient Provinces.	Prefectures.	Cities. ‖	Population.
Æster-Goethland or Ostrogothia	Linkoeping.	LINKOEPING†	3,000
		Norkoeping	2,900
		Wadstena	1,400
		Soederkoeping	900
Smœland or Smaland	Calmar	CALMAR†	4,500
		Westerwik	3,400
		Borgholm¶	500?
	Joenkoeping	JOENKOEPING†	3,000
		Adelfors	500?
		Ekesjoe	1,100
	Kronoberg	WEXIO	1,300
Bleking	Bleking.	CARLSCRONA	11,000
		Ronneby	300
		Carlshamn	3,400
Dalsland and Westergothland	Elfsborg	WENERSBORG	1,500
		Boeroes	2,000
		Trollhoetan	500
		Amal	800

BOOK CXLVIII.

* *M. Ad. Balbi* calls it the *Norwegian-Swedish* monarchy; but he proposes the name of *Swedo-Norwegian*, as softer in pronunciation.

§ *M. Hagelstam*, a learned Swedish geographer, divides the kingdom into three great parts; and these again are subdivided into twenty-four *laen* or prefectures, which have come in place of the ancient division into provinces.

‖ The bishoprics and arch-bishoprics are pointed out by the marks † and ‡.

¶ In the Isle of Œland.

BOOK CXLVIII.

Ancient Provinces.	Prefectures.	Cities.	Population.
Westergothland or Westrogothia.	Skaraborg	MARIESTADT	1,100
		Lidkoeping	1,500
		Skara	1,000
	Goeteborg or Gottenburg, and Bohus	GOTTENBURG	24,000
		Marstrand	1,200
		Uddevalla	4,000
		Stroemstad	1,000
Halland	Helmstadt	HELMSTADT	1,500
		Warberg	1,300
		Laholm	900
Scaane or Scania	Christianstadt	CHRISTIANSTADT	3,000
		Engelholm	500
		Cimbrishamn	700
	Malmoehus	MALMOE	6,000
		Ystadt	2,600
		Lund	3,200
		Landskrona	3,800
		Helsinborg	4,000
Gothland (Island of)	Gothland	WISBY	3,800

II. CENTRAL REGION—Svealand or Sweden.

Upland	Upsala	UPSALA‡	4,500
		Loefsta	1,500
		Elskalerby	600?
		Soederfers	500?
		Dannemora	400
Upland and Soedermanland	Stockholm	STOCKHOLM	79,000
		Drottningholm	3,500
		Nortelge	800
		Soedertelge	500
		Vexholm	500
Soedermanland or Sudermania	Nykoeping	NYKOEPING	2,300
		Strengnoes	1,100
		Eskilstuna	1,500
Westmanland or Westmania	Westeras	WESTERAS†	3,000
		Sala	2,000
		Arboga*	1,500
		Koeping	1,200
Westmanland and Nerike or Nericia	Œrebro	ŒREBRO	3,000
		Nora	800
		Askersund	800
Wermeland	Carlstadt	CARLSTADT	2,200
		Christineham	2,000
Dalarne or Dalecarlia	Stora-Kopperberg	FALUN	4,700
		Hedemora	800
		Avesta	700
Gestrikland or Gestricia, and Helsingland or Helsingia	Gefleborg	GEFLE†	6,000
		Soederhamm	1.400
		Huddikeswall	1,500

III. NORTHERN REGION — Norrland or the country of the North.

Ancient Provinces.	Prefectures.	Cities.	Population.
Wester-Botten or Westbothnia, and Lappmark or Laponia	Norrbotten or Northern Bothnia	PITEA	800
		Lulea	1,000
		Gellivara	1,100
	Wester Botten or Western Bothnia	UMEA	1,100
Medelpad and Angermanland or Angermania	Wester-Norrland	HERNOSAND†	1,800
		Sundswall	1,600
Joemtland or Jemtia and Herje Œdalen	Joemtland	ÆSTERSUND	200
		Ljusnedal	150

KINGDOM OF NORWAY.*

SURFACE 16,668 SQUARE LEAGUES.

Population per Square League, 63 Inhabitants.

I. SOUTHERN REGION — Soedenfield, or to the south of the mountains.

Dioceses.	Districts.	Cities.	Population.
Aggershuus	Aggershuus	CHRISTIANA§	20,600
		Droebak	1,400
	Smaalehnen	Moss	1,400
		Friderikshald	4,000
		Friderikstad	2,300
	Hedemarken	Hoff	——?
		Kongsvinger	400
		Elverum	3,000
	Christian	Lessoe	——?
		Biri	——?
	Buskerud	Kongsberg	7,000
		Modum	4,500
		Drammen	6,000
		Eger	2,000
	County of Jalsberg	Tonsberg	1,500
	County of Laurvig	Laurvig	1,800
		Friderikswœrn	600

* Norway is divided into three physical regions, and into four dioceses, composed of sixteen districts or bailiwicks and two counties.

† We do not mark the capital of each district, because neither the travels of M. de Schubert, nor the map of Mr Hagelstam, nor the royal almanack of Sweden point them out.

BOOK CXLVIII.

Dioceses.	Districts.	Cities.	Population.
Christiansand	Bradsberg	Skeen	1,800
		Porsgrund	1,500
	Nedenœs	Arendal	1,700
	Mandal	CHRISTIANSAND	4,900
		Mandal	1,600
	Stavanger	Stavanger	2,400

II. CENTRAL REGION — Nordenfield, or the north of the mountains.

Bergen	Soendre Bergenhuus	BERGEN	20,800
		Rosendahl (barony)	—?
	Nordre Bergenhuus	Indvig	3,900
		Vüg	——?
		Leganger	3,200
Drontheim	Soendre Drontheim	DRONTHEIM	9,000
		Roeraas	3,000
	Nordre Drontheim	Levanger	300
		Stoerdalen	——?
		Skogn	——?
	Romsdal	CHRISTIANSUND	1,600
		Molde	800

III. NORTHERN REGION — Nordland or the country of the north.

Drontheim	Nordland	BODOOE	300
		Alstahaug	——?
		Islands — West Vangen and East Vangen	4,000
		Island Langren	
		Island Hindœen	
	Finmark	TROMSOE	800
		Altengard	2,000
		Hammerfest	——?
		Wardœehuus	
		Islands Senjen	
		——— Soroee	
		——— Mageroe	

Colonies of the Suédo-Norwegian Monarchy.

Archipelago of the Antilles — Island of St Bartholomew	16,000

Movement of the Population since the last census.

Sweden	Nobles		20,500	2,800,000
	Ecclesiastics		14,000	
	Burgesses (not including civil functionaries)		57,330	
	Peasantry		2,636,540	
	Civil Functionaries		9,270	
	Army, and Navy — Officers	2,200	62,360	
	Army, and Navy — Soldiers and seamen	60,160		

Brought forward,			2,816,000
	Total population in 1826,	2,800,000	
	Total population in 1815, according to M. Hagelstam,*	2,465,000	
	Increase from 1815 to 1826,	335,000	
Norway.	Inhabitants of Cities,	105,000	1,050,000
	——— of Frontiers,	10,600	
	——— of the Country,	934,400	
	Total population in 1826,	1,050,000	
	Total population in 1815,†	886,400	
	Increase from 1815 to 1826,	163,600	
	Total population,		3,866,000

Table of births in Sweden.

Years.	Legitimate.			Illegitimate.			Total general.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	
1821	43,938	41,868	85,806	3,218	3,048	6,266	92,072
1822	44,647	42,737	87,384	3,595	3,330	6,925	94,309
1823	46,639	44,440	91,079	3,548	3,632	7,180	98,259
1824	44,477	42,606	87,083	3,316	3,178	6,494	93,577
1825	47,751	45,863	93,614	3,344	3,357	6,701	100,315
Total,	227,452	217,514	444,966	17,021	16,545	33,566	478,532
Average for these 5 years,	45,490	43,503	88,993	3,404	3,309	6,713	95,706
Average for the 5 preceding years, viz, from 1816 to 1820,	40,634	38,724	79,358	2,997	2,898	5,895	85,253
Annual increase of births during the 5 last years,	4,856	4,779	9,635	407	411	818	10,453‡

* See Reise durch das Westliche Schweden Norwegen und Finland, by M. Schubert.

† See work last cited.

‡ The illegitimate births during the last five years are to the total births as 1 to 13.3710. During the five preceding years they were as 1 to 14.172.

Table of Mortality in Sweden.

	Males.	Females.	Total.
1821	33,466	32,950	66,416
1822	30,500	28,890	59,390
1823	28,802	27,265	56,067
1824	29,071	27,185	56,256
1825	29,180	27,285	56,465
Total,	151,019	143,575	294,594
Children under one year,	8,316	6,887	15,203

In the above five years there were reckoned among the deaths —

1. Children still-born,	12,623
2. Children stifled in bed by their mothers or nurses,	388
3. Children murdered,	12
4. Adults do.	35
5. Persons drowned,	1,126
6. Suicides,	151
7. Deaths from drunkenness,	36
8. Killed by lightning,	6
9. Condemned to death and executed,	7

Tables of Marriages in Sweden.

	Between unmarried persons.	Between widowers and unmarried persons.	Total.
1821	17,708	5,182	22,890
1822	19,026	5,405	24,431
1823	19,017	4,926	23,993
1824	18,971	4,936	23,907
1825	19,097	4,543	23,640
Total,	93,819	25,042	118,861

Classification of families in Sweden, according to the number of individuals composing them. End of 1825.

Of 2 individuals,	77,334
Of 3 to 5,	244,641
Of 6 to 10,	181,361
Of 10 to 15,	16,076
Above 15,	2,643
Total of families,	522,055

Pauperism in Sweden. End of 1825.

Poor residing in private houses,	9,664
—— receiving aid at home,	8,991
—— in alms-houses,	2,033
—— in hospitals,	528
Total,	21,216

Prisoners in both kingdoms in 1827.

In Sweden, about	1,838	2,700
In Norway	862	

Average of Trade in Sweden.

1050 manufactories, employing 7,200 workmen produce annually, per rixd.	6,840,000 or in fr. 15,390,000
The exports in iron and other metals, including wheat, may be estimated at about, rixd.	12,188,000 or in fr. 27,423,000
Imports of all kinds, rixd.	14,294,000 or in fr. 32,161,500

View of different professions in 1827.

		In Sweden.	In Norway.
Clergymen,		3,193	415
Other individuals belonging to the church,		3,753	
Professors and teachers,		763	47
Public functionaries,		4,375	304
Physicians and surgeons,		391	118
Architects,		11	
Employed at saltpetre works,		300	
Do.	the domains of the crown,	1,180	460
Do.	the customs, &c,	1,326	313
Do.	mines, forests, &c,	474	37
Do.	police,	273	103
Bridges and roads,		483	15
Army.	Land and sea officers,	1,872	798
	Subalterns,	2,511	1,153
	Cadets (from the Academy of Carlberg),	130	70
	Soldiers and seamen,	43,113	12,533
	Musicians and drummers,	711	417
	Pilots and lighthouse keepers,	779	1,613

Navy of Sweden and Norway.

SHIPS OF WAR.

Ships of the line.	Frigates.	Inferior ships.	Total.
12	13	60	85

Finances of the two Kingdoms.

Revenue in fr. 42,000,000 Debt in fr. 200,000,000

BOOK CXLIX.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Description of Denmark and of the Fœroe Isles.

BOOK CXLIX.

WHAT sublime recollections are connected with the history of this small Peninsula, which, washed on the east by the north sea, on the west by the strait of Cattegat, and on the north by that of the Skager-Rack; flanked on the east by large islands, and on the west by a small archipelago, interposes between Sweden and Norway! The cradle of the formidable *Cimbri*, the ancients called it *Cimbrica Chersonesus*. From this country there issued, 100 years before our era, those tribes which, joined to several others inhabiting the borders of the Baltic, ravaged Gaul and Helvetia, made Italy tremble, several times defeated the Romans, and were at last themselves defeated by Marius. The same people, under the name of *Jutes* and *Angli*, some centuries afterwards, invaded England, and, being hardy navigators, swelled that swarm of pirates from Norway and Sweden, confounded during the middle age under the name of Normans, the terror of the rest of Europe for a period of several centuries.*

Limits of Denmark.

Jutland, which comprehends the whole peninsula, inhabited by the Jutes, whose name it bears; the dutchy of *Sleswick*, an isthmus, which with *Holstein* and the dutchy of *Lauenburg*, adjoining to it, was peopled by the *Angli*; the

* In the 9th century, these words were added to the Litany: *A furore Normanorum, libera nos, O Domine.*

isles of *Fionia* or *Funen*, *Zealand*, *Laaland*, and several others of less importance, form the kingdom of Denmark, and present an extent of more than 1500 leagues of coast.

At the sight of these countries, which are separated by several straits, dangerous from their shoals as well as from their impotent breadth, such as the Sound, and the Great and Little Belt, one is tempted to broach a question that has been more than once agitated, and the solution of which divides in opinion such literary men, as inhabiting the borders of the Baltic, are favourably situated for verifying known facts and making new observations. — Is it a fact that there is a declension in the level of this sea? Olof Dalin says, that on the side of Sweden, it annually loses a half inch; Andreas Celsius has calculated that its diminution is four inches five lines every hundred years; Pontoppidan has made the same observation on the coasts of Denmark;* Bergman regards this fact as incontestable. After a careful examination, we have arrived at this conclusion, that the diminution is very unequal; that in the Gulf of Bothnia, it may perhaps be stated at four feet in a century, while it is only two feet on the coast of Calmar, and still less on that of Denmark. The inhabitants of the islets on the north side of the Baltic, persuaded of this change of level, attribute it, not to the diminution of the waters, but to the elevating the soil. It is true, that many geological facts prove that the old rocks have been raised at a very remote period, by a force acting from the centre of the earth to its surface; but it is not probable that such risings exist at this day. Besides, although it is natural to think that the accumulation of the remains of marine animals, and other causes equally slow, ought to contribute, in the course of ages, to the diminution of the depth of seas, yet after all, the diminution of the waters of the Baltic, a sea with neither flux nor reflux, may be a mere illusion. The alluvions which the great and small rivers bear thither, drive back, as in other seas, its boundaries in some places: and the equal motion of its waters, even when raised by the violence of the winds, also favours the idea of diminu-

Diminution of the Baltic sea.

* In his Geography, intituled, Danish Atlas.

BOOK CXLIX.

tion. In one place, cities, formerly on the coast, are now at a distance from it; elsewhere, rocks, covered at one time by the highest waters, are now visible: these facts seem to confirm a diminution of the level,—a theory, which upon the whole is more probable than the contrary hypothesis, in spite of the opinion of certain old observers, that the waters of the Baltic are higher than those of the Ocean.*

Geology.

Denmark is only a prolongation of the vast plains which, towards the east and south, border this sea. The highest inequalities of soil in the dutchies of Holstein and Sleswick, do not exceed 1000 feet. It is the same in the Danish islands; the mountains of Fionia, and those in the centre of Zealand, being only hills. The soil, even to a considerable depth, is composed of sand and clay, the deposits of alluvions which everywhere contain a chalky sediment. The clay supports the sand: in the former, which is ordinarily of a blueish colour, are found a great number of marine shells, which have in part preserved their original colours, and similar shells to many of which are found in the sea, as if to prove to the observer, that this clay is one of the most recent formations of those with which we are acquainted in geology. On some parts of the coast, this earth occasionally contains trunks of trees half decomposed, and not only impressions, but entire strata of plants of the family called *aroideae*, several individuals of which perfectly resemble the *zostera-marina*. The upper sand is sometimes mixed with reddish clay; and remains of plants are found there, which would seem to have been carbonized. It does not appear that in northern Jutland this diluvial sand contains the remains of the bones of those large animals, so frequent elsewhere in similar deposits; but in several other parts of Denmark, these remains are found in the same sand. The savant who furnishes us with these remarks,† declares that he never found, but in one place, round blocks of granite rocks, such as are found

Vegetable fossils.

* Consult the Observations of M. N. Brunrona on the Diminution of the Baltic Sea, accompanied with Remarks by M. Hoellstroem. Memoirs of the Academy of Stockholm, 1823, 1824.

† Memoir of M. Docteur Pingel, upon the *diluvium* and *alluvium* of Northern Jutland.

torn from the Norwegian mountains. Another savant* is of opinion, that these masses of rock have been conveyed by the ice, as is still to be seen in some countries farther to the north. What proves that this sand belongs to another epocha than the clay which it covers, is, that, even when the clay presents an irregular or undulated appearance, the sand is always in a horizontal position. In the *Vindsyssel*, in place of sand there are strata of peat or turf of a great extent, which, on the borders of the sea, are covered by the sand of the downs. This peat forms a good article of fuel. The isle of Fionia presents the same geological organization as continental Denmark; thus, the upper marine sediments represented by the blue clay in Jutland, develope themselves in Holstein in such a manner as to present in the hilly part of that dutchy, beds of stone for building; while in the same way in Fionia, they find chalk, clay, the grosser limestone proper for building, and peat. In Zealand, the chalky earth appears to have been renewed by the waters since its formation. The island of Bornholm, which is much nearer Sweden than Denmark, differs from the latter country and its islands; there, granite rocks support deposits of different ages, even including those which show the commencement of a chalky formation.* After the view we have just given of the geological constitution of Denmark, it will excite no surprise to learn that it does not contain metals in quantity sufficient to be wrought.

We have said that the straits which divide the Danish isles, present a difficult navigation; and the shallows, the rapid currents, waves short and precipitous, concur to render the whole coast very dangerous, especially that of Jutland. The rivers of Jutland, and of the dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein are inconsiderable, but the country is compensated for this loss by the narrow arms of the sea which penetrate the country to a great distance, and render more commodious the sea-ports established there. The

Arms of the sea and bays.

* Observations geognostical and mineralogical on Northern Jutland, by Dr Bredsdorff.

† Geognostic Observations on Scania and the island of Bornholm, by Mr Forchhammer.

BOOK CXLIX.

Danes call them *Fiords*, (in Scotland, *Firths*, Freta). Some years ago, the most important was the *Lym-Fiord*, in the northern part of Jutland: its entrance was into the Cattegat, and it terminated in a neck of land washed by the north sea; but this narrow isthmus could not resist the violence of the waves; in February 1825, a breach was made in it, and the Lym-Fiord, which towards the west assumes the form of a large lake, (in the midst of which rises the island of *Mors*,) open to the east and west, has transformed the northern extremity of Jutland into a long and irregular island. The opening which has been thus made is unfortunately of no commercial advantage: it is not navigable, and probably will never be so, because it would occasion an expense too considerable to finish what nature has commenced. The most important of the other inlets of the sea are the *Ringkioebing-Fiord* and the *Nissum-Fiord*, on the western coast of the Peninsula; the *Flensburg-Fiord* and the *Schley*, on the eastern coast of Sleswick; the *Odensee-Fiord* on the north side of Fionia; and lastly, the *Ise-Fiord* and the *Roeskilde-Fiord* on the north side of Zealand. There are a great number of lakes in continental Denmark, and in its islands. Jutland contains twenty-five, Sleswick one, and Holstein three; in the island of Zealand they count at least twelve, and several are also to be seen in Fionia. It is calculated that the lakes and marshes cover a one and twentieth part of the surface of Denmark, that a seventy-eighth part is occupied by the channels of rivers, and in fine, that without counting the bays, inlets of the sea and canals, the waters form one sixteenth of the surface of the kingdom, computed at 2865 leagues, of which 2210 belong to the continent, and 655 to the islands. The three principal canals in Denmark are, that of *Odensee*, which, although of small extent, is important to the commerce of that city, from its opening a communication with the Great Belt; that of the *Steckenitz*, which by the junction of that branch of the Trave with the Delvenau, an auxiliary of the Elbe, connects that river with the Baltic sea; and the canal of *Sleswig-Holstein*, the greatest of the three, which, carrying the waters of the Eider to the gulf of Kiel, re-unites the North Sea to the Baltic. Other canals are

Canals.

projected, with a view to benefiting the commercial relations of the kingdom.

Dimensions of Denmark.

The length of the continental provinces, from the course of the Elbe, which traces in part the southern limit of the dutchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, to Cape Skagen in the north, which separates the Cattegat from the strait of Skager-Rack, is 107 geographical leagues; their greatest breadth is 38 leagues, and the smallest 11. In the widest part of the Danish Peninsula, there is no place distant from the sea more than 14 leagues: whence it happens, that, in spite of its situation, at the northern extremity of the northern temperate zone, the climate of Denmark is warmer than its latitude indicates. The abundance of waters, and the proximity of the sea, cover the country with vapours and moist fogs; during the winter, the thermometer descends from 3 to 11 degrees, and during the summer it rises from 12 to 18 degrees; the winds, whose force is not arrested by any mountains, usually disperse the exhalations and mists. Under this foggy sky, spring does not adorn itself with those charms, which, in more temperate regions, announce the revival of nature: during this season, the weather is by turns humid, tempestuous, or frosty. Summer, almost always very variable, lasts only from June to the middle of August: to the heat of the day, the longest of which is 17 hours, succeeds the coolness of the night. Autumn is the finest of the seasons, but its duration is short: the cold weather returns in October, and the month of November passes in cold rains and in storms. Winter, subject to almost incessant snow or rain, especially in the months of January and February, rarely however sees the coasts covered with ice: the shortest day lasts about seven hours.

Climate.

Seasons.

Vegetation.

The constant humidity of the atmosphere favours vegetation in Denmark; but the violence of the tempests opposes the growth of forest-trees; a wind from the north-west, called *skai*, whose pernicious breath is especially felt in May and June, withers the tops of the trees, whilst the west wind is sufficiently frequent to give them a very marked inclination. Of the dark forests, which, in the tenth and eleventh centuries, covered the Peninsula of Jut-

Forests

BOOK CXLIX.

land, there now only remain long belts along all its eastern side; Holstein has only preserved a few fragments in the middle of its heaths; Lauenburg, to the south of Holstein, contains the forest of Sachsenwald, formerly much more extensive. In these three provinces the woods are composed of the ash, the Alder, the oak, but especially the birch tree: the pine and the fir are rare. The island of Fionia is interspersed with small woods; the north-east part of Zealand, next the borders of the Sound, and the Isle of Falster still contain several; and in that of Bornholm there are to be seen forests of birch. The whole of the woods of Denmark form a surface of 130 square leagues. Their improvident destruction near the sea-coast has exposed the lands to invasion from the sands. On the coasts grow the common glass-wort (*salsola soda*); the Juniper, the myrtle, the bramble, and several other berry-bearing shrubs border the high-ways and the skirts of the woods; a plant which the Danes call manna (*festuca fluitans*, Linn.) throws out spontaneously its useful branches in several of the islands, and especially in that of Laaland: the grain of it yields very good meal. Several other indigenous vegetables are found useful in medicine, and also in dyeing.

Meadows.

The meadows of Denmark present a verdure as fresh as those of England: for a long time the cultivator of the ground has been in the practice of increasing its value by draining the marshes and multiplying artificial meadows. There are, however, on the western coasts of South Jutland and Holstein, pasturages naturally so rich and so fertile as to

Cultivation

render all culture superfluous. In Holstein, Sleswick, and Jutland, they cultivate flax and hemp; but although the ground there has been found to suit these plants, they are yet much neglected. In Jutland they also raise tobacco, and sow a good deal of buck-wheat. The different kinds of grain succeed everywhere; the produce, estimated at seven millions of tons, or at 1,300,000,000 kilogrammes, exceeds the wants of the population. The oats of Bornholm, the rye of Jutland, the wheat of Laaland, and the barley of Zealand, Sleswick, and Holstein, are everywhere esteemed. The potato, cummin, mustard, as well as other us fu plants, are much cultivated; and the kitchen-

gardens abound in artichokes, cauliflowers, asparagus, and melons, of an excellent quality. These plants are cultivated also in the fields, but less extensively than in France and Germany. The grape does not ripen except in hothouses, but in the orchards, if peaches and apricots are rarer than in France, the inhabitants find an ample compensation in the culture of the plumb, the cherry, the pear, and especially the apple: the apples of Gravenstien in Sleswick are much famed; fruits form an article of considerable export, especially to Sweden and Russia.

Wild animals.

In losing their vast forests, the Danish territory and its isles have witnessed the extinction of the tribes of the larger wild animals: the wolf, which formerly ravaged this country, has entirely disappeared; the wild boar has become very rare; the stag and the fallow deer exist only in parks; the fox, the martin, the polecat, the rat, and various other small quadrupeds, are the only ones that do injury to property, existing in great numbers. Game is everywhere abundant on the coasts of Jutland; hares are in demand as agreeable food; wild geese and ducks, partridges, snipes, and thrushes, people the marshes and the fields; swans live at freedom in the gulf of Lym-Fiord and on the Islands of Amack and Bornholm, which they do not quit till compelled by the severity of the frost; the duck known under the name of eider-duck, covers with his soft down the nests which he maks in the cleffs of the rocks and promontories: the eagle and the other large birds of prey are seldom seen, and seem to despise a country, which has no heights sufficiently elevated for their dwelling.

Domestic animals.

Domestic animals form the principal riches of Denmark; geese and other fowl afford a considerable profit to those who breed them. Danish horses are of two kinds: the one, small but vigorous, abounds in the islands; the other, large, strong, and elegantly shaped, is confined to Jutland and Holstein and sought after by strangers. Horned cattle are also smaller in the isles than on the mainland; their great number, as well as the number of sheep, whose breed has undergone the most important amelioration during the last twenty years, by crossing them with the breeds of Spain and England, attest the progress of agriculture. The

BOOK CXLIX.

swine of Jutland, sent in considerable herds into Holstein, form, in that dutchy, a double branch of industry; being fattened and salted for foreign export. In fine, Denmark has long supplied the Continent with that race of dogs called Danish, renowned for their strength and their fidelity, and the small black-muzzled dog called by the French *carlin*, so much sought after in France during the last twenty-five years.

Fish.

Although not so well supplied with fish as those of Norway, yet the seas that wash Denmark amply reward the active fisherman. They not only supply the greater part of the inhabitants with food, but afford a surplus for exportation: the plaice *(pleuronectes platessa)*, which is taken in the neighbourhood of Cape Skagen, is sold in a dried state to the Lubeckers, who pack it up neatly and send it as far as Italy; the western coast of Sleswick and Jutland is supplied with beds of oysters; on the borders of the Cattegat they catch abundance of Lobsters; porpoises and sea-dogs are frequently caught in the nets which they at same time injure by their size; the small river of Slie in Sleswick furnishes a species of herring which is in some estimation, and that of Guden-Aa, the most considerable in Jutland, excellent salmon.

Commerce.

The Dane thus finds a certain means of subsistence in the produce of the soil, in the animals which he rears, and the fish of his lakes, rivers, and seas. He exports grain, cheese, wool, salted provisions, tallow, horse and cow-hides, feathers, and fish. His industry supplies besides, as articles of trade, coarse pottery, hosiery, lace, and cotton stuffs; but the greater part of these exports have diminished for several years back, owing, in part at least, to the fetters which custom-house duties throw around trade, and to the obstacles which indirect taxes present to the developement of industry. Government ought to encourage the culture of hops, wood, and oleaginous plants, — the rearing of bees, the improvement of wool, — and the making of cheese.*

With the exception of a few thousand Jews, the greater

* See the work of *J. Collin*, counsellor of state, intituled 'For historie og statistik isoer Foedrelandets,' tom. ii, Copenhagen, 1825.

part of whom are established at Altona and Copenhagen, the inhabitants of Denmark descend, as has been already said, from one of those ancient nations, whose union together forms the Germanic stock. The idiom which is spoken in Jutland, Sleswick, and the Danish archipelago, is a dialect of the Scaldic or Scandinavian language; that of Holstein, and the small archipelago lying near the western coast of Sleswick, are two dialects of the old Saxon. It is in these idioms we find the signification of the names given to the islands and provinces which compose *Denmark*. This name signifies *low lands*;* Fionia, *a beautiful country*; Laaland, *low country*; Zealand, *a country surrounded with water*.† Belt means *a girdle*; and, in point of fact, the two Belts are long and narrow. The name *Jutland* appears to be merely a corruption of the word *Gothland*: it was a country of the Goths. Holstein, which the Hibernian chronicles call *Holsaturland*, is *Holsatia* or *woody Saxony*.‡ The Danish language, as spoken by persons of education, is soft and harmonious: what distinguishes it chiefly from the Swedish, is the substitution of the *e* in place of *a* in the greater part of words.

Language

The climate of Denmark is not injurious to the health of the inhabitants, as is proved by the proportion which the population bears to the surface of the country. Possibly, however, the humidity of the atmosphere, and the quantity of salted meat and fish used by the Danes, may have contributed to render their character dull, patient, and difficult to move. 'Formerly an insatiable conqueror, now brave but pacific; of little enterprise, but laborious and persevering; diffident but proud, hospitable but not officious; cheerful and open with his countrymen, but somewhat cold and ceremonious towards strangers; loving his ease more than show, more economical than industrious; sometimes from vanity, and sometimes from laziness, an imitator of others; a judicious observer, a profound thinker,

Danish character.

* From *dalm*, low, and *mark*, fields.

† The ancient name of this island was *Sia-lund*, which means *a forest in the sea*; from *sia*, sea, and *lund*, forest.

‡ *Hols* signifies wood.

BOOK CXLIX.

but slow and minute; indued with an imagination more strong than rich; constant, romantic, and jealous in his affections; capable of great enthusiasm, but rarely of those flashes of intellect, or sallies of wit, which, by their unexpectedness, demand and obtain victory and applause; strongly attached to his native soil, and to the interests of his country, but caring little about national glory; accustomed to the calm of monarchy, but the enemy of slavery and arbitrary power; such is the portrait of the Dane.'

The Holsteiner.

The inhabitant of Holstein would not recognise himself in this potrait; because in effect he differs in many respects from the inhabitant of Denmark: he is economical and industrious like the Hollander, and not less bold in his commercial views. The Dane is generally middle-sized, well-made, fair, and of a gentle and agreeable physiognomy; the Holsteiner rarely displays in his features the nobleness and delicacy of northern countenances. In both nations, private virtues, morals more severe in reality than in appearance, manners polished rather than refined, distinguish the higher ranks; among the lower ranks, the love of order is not a rare quality, excepting with the seaman, who, by his kind of life, is led to adopt the vices of different nations. The peasant is laborious; he dresses himself with neatness; loves to sing and to dance, and appears to be happier than in the rest of Europe, and especially than in France. He has become a proprietor, as in this last country, by the advantage which the disposal of seignorial lands in small portions offers to the proprietors. The personal services due by the peasantry to their landlords have been long since abolished, or an annual payment substituted in their place; and many farms are let on perpetual leases — a circumstance which has contributed not a little to the advancement of agriculture.

Education.

There is much more education in Denmark than in France. It is rare to meet a peasant, or any other of the lower class, who cannot read. In 1822, government permitted the introduction of the system of mutual instruction in the elementary public schools: the succeeding year,

* See Geographie, Mathématique, physique et Politique, &c, tom. ii.

the number of schools which had adopted this method amounted to 244, and in the beginning of 1829, it was about 2500. At this date there were reckoned in all more than 4500 primary schools, of which 400 were private. This rapid progress is due to the zeal of the *Society for Elementary Instruction*, established at Copenhagen. In Denmark, this instruction is not confined, as in France, to reading, writing, arithmetic, and religious instruction; it comprehends also history, geography, and natural history.* The higher studies enjoy the same favour as the early branches of education.

Learned men.

Distinguished writers and learned men have added celebrity to the Danish nation. Holberg, a comic author, has enriched the national literature with a heroi-comic poem, regarded as classical by his countrymen;† his comedies have procured to him the surname of the Plautus of the North. Pram has made himself known by a fine epic poem, and by some good tragedies. Thormodus-Torfœus, Gram-Langebeck, Schjonning, and some others, have carried the information of a vast erudition into the study of the history and antiquities of the north. Malling, among the historians, has distinguished himself by the elegance of his style. We are indebted for several philosophical treatises to Boye, Gamborg, and Treschow, the last of whom has refuted the opinions of Kant. Among the men who have cultivated with success the physical and natural sciences, Laurensberg Steno, and Gaspard Thomas, have left valuable works on mineralogy; Erasmus Bartholin discovered the double refraction of the carbonated lime, called *spath of Ireland;* Pontoppidan, bishop of Bergen, in Norway, has made us acquainted with the minerals of Denmark and Norway; Brünich first composed in Danish a manual of mineralogy; Abildgaard, a learned physician, wrote on minerals and animals; Winslow passes for the founder of descriptive anatomy; Borch, at once physician, chymist, and philologist, has left numerous writings: Thomas Bartholin, the author

* See extract from report to the king of Denmark, inserted in the Revue Encyclopedique for April 1828.

† It is intituled, *Peders Pors.*

BOOK CXLIX.

of a crowd of works, was considered the first physician of his age; Fabricius, so celebrated as an entomologist, has carried the torch of his genius into many questions of natural history and political economy. If so many distinguished names are not enough for the glory of Denmark, let us remember that the name of Tycho-Brahé alone throws a lustre on this country. It is less rich in celebrated artists, a natural consequence of the small number of large fortunes in Denmark; yet, more alive to glory than to the favours of fortune, several Danes have obtained a name in painting, engraving, and sculpture.

Artists.

Government.

Previous to the year 1660, the constitution of Denmark was, like that of Norway and Sweden, a limited and elective monarchy. The sovereign was elected by the States-General, consisting of the nobility, clergy, and commons,—the last including burgesses and peasantry. This has been admitted by all historians, and the memorable answer of Waldemar III, in the fourteenth century to the Pope's nuncio, who was attempting to assume authority in the kingdom, may be here quoted to show the opinion of royalty itself in a matter, where, had not the fact been indubitable, silence would have been preserved. 'Our nature,' says the prince, 'we have from God, *our kingdom from our subjects*, our wealth from our parents, and our religion from the Church of Rome, which last we are willing to renounce, if you envy us the felicity it brings.' The king was in general chosen from the royal family, but without regard to hereditary succession, and, if he conducted himself in opposition to the laws and constitution, the States made no difficulty of bringing him to trial, and deposing, banishing, imprisoning, and even putting him to death, if occasion required. The laws required that frequent convocations of the States should be held, and by them all matters connected with government were transacted, questions as to peace or war, the imposition of taxes, the enactment of new laws, and abolition or alteration of the old. It was the duty of the king to see the laws well administered, and justice done impartially to all, to command the army in time of war, and to prevent one order in the State from usurping power over the other orders. He had no support from

the people, and his revenue arose entirely from his own estate, from the crown lands, as they might be called. But since 1660, Denmark has been a hereditary monarchy submissive to the most absolute authority that exists in Europe, having no other limits than the will of the prince. The revolution took its rise from the usurpations of the nobility, and the advantage taken by the reigning prince of the discontents that arose out of these usurpations. The States, which ought to have been frequently called together, were seldom convoked, and the nobility, who had taken advantage of this circumstance to increase their own privileges, and incroach upon those of others, were not anxious that assemblies should be called, which might reduce, or attempt to reduce the power they had unjustly acquired. The grand cause of offence was their having contrived, in the imposition of taxes, to lay the great burden of these taxes upon others, and to free themselves almost entirely from that burden, under the pretext of the peculiar privileges of their order. To perpetuate this state of things, partial assemblies of the States were convoked, and the clergy and commons came to be considered as mere cyphers in the government, the whole power falling into the hands of the aristocracy, and some creatures of the court. The Senate, for so it appears was the States-General called, which exercised without responsibility, what, under the circumstances mentioned, became an usurped power, lost with time the imposing character which had long drawn to it the respect of the nation. It is in a political crisis, such as this, that we can judge of the real strength of the government. When it has not for its foundation the interests of the whole, it resembles a frail scaffolding, which a breath of wind will overturn. The war declared against Sweden by Denmark (in 1657) drew upon the latter kingdom the disasters of an invasion, in which Copenhagen was twice besieged by Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, and only saved from destruction by the heroism of Frederick III, and the sudden death of the king of Sweden. Peace was soon concluded, but several provinces were lost;* the public treasury was in debt,

* The provinces of Scania, Halland, and Bleking, at the southern extremity of the Scandinavian Peninsula.

BOOK CXLIX.

the fields were desolated, industry and commerce had received a fatal blow, the collection of the taxes was at a stop, the troops demanded the arrears of their pay, the marine stood in need of urgent repairs; discontent was general. It was in this state of matters, that, towards the end of the year 1660, an assembly of the States was convoked. That, at this time, the court meditated a great change, is proved by the fact that the order of the peasantry was not represented in this assembly, which was made up of deputies from the clergy, nobility, and burgesses. The nobility renewed their old pretensions to supremacy; the clergy, jealous of the nobility, vowed to see that order humbled; the burgesses of Copenhagen, proud of the confidence which had been expressed towards them by the government, and full of hope in expectation of future favours, manifested their devotion to the crown. They called to mind the dangers which the monarch (Frederick III,) had encountered during the sieges of the capital, and the traits of character by which he had acquired a great popularity. While his subjects were in this state of mind, the prince affected to know nothing about what was in agitation, but the agents of the court took their measures in secret. Already some influential men in the three orders had been gained, when the Assembly undertook to examine the means of remedying the calamities which overwhelmed the country. The nobility proposed a tax upon articles of consumption, a part of which they consented to bear, but with so many restrictions, that the burden would have been insupportable by all classes, themselves excepted: this was the signal for dissension. While the discussion was going on between the nobles and the clergy, the latter, in conjunction with the burgesses, drew up memorials, in which, for the first time, transpired ideas of hereditary monarchy, which found partisans among the public, but especially in the court. The proposal of a stamp-duty increased the confusion; murmurs were heard from amongst all the three orders; one of the influential burgess deputies ventured to propose hereditary succession, 'with a view,' he added, 'that the king might be master;' the same motion was made amongst the clergy, and was adopted by these two orders. At first the nobility refused

Revolution of 1660.

their concurrence, but writings being circulated in which their privileges were vigorously attacked, in the end they gave their consent to this important change. The making the succession to the crown hereditary nullified the agreement which the king had signed on his coming to the throne; besides, great alterations became necessary in the relations that were to exist between the Crown and the States; and the burgesses were anxious to rise above the state of political nullity, in which, by means of assemblies held at remote intervals, they had hitherto been held. In the mean time their minds were too much agitated to be able to examine, with the prudence necessary, the questions relative to a new constitution: it was therefore decided that this important matter should be intrusted to a committee, and, in order that the nomination of this committee might not be influenced by the general agitation, the appointment of the members was left to the king. This committee, unanimous as to the nullity of the oath that had been taken by the king, could not, whether under a pretext, or from a real difference of opinion, come to any agreement as to the terms of the new constitution; and the bishop of Zealand, one of the members gained by the court, then moved that the decision of a question, in which those intrusted felt so much difficulty in coming to an agreement, should be left to the impartiality of the king. The three orders approved of this motion; they put a new oath into the hands of their now hereditary monarch; and, in order to give more solemnity to this imposing ceremony, the order of the peasantry was convoked, but merely to join their oath to that of the other orders. To the pomp of festivals and great entertainments succeeded the deliberations of the States upon the rights they ought to preserve; the agitation, the hesitation, and exasperation of the parties, were greater than ever they had been; and at last, worn out or corrupted, the States renounced their rights! A solemn act of 10th January 1661, declared that the king was invested *for ever* with absolute power! It is remarked by an old writer, 'that this is the only legal absolute monarchy, perhaps, in the world; the king being declared so by the States of the kingdom,

Establishment of absolute power.

BOOK CXLIX.

who had that power by the constitution.' Was this deed irrevocable?

Actual form of government.

Four years after this extraordinary event, the reigning sovereign (Frederick III,) issued a decree, bearing date 14th Nov. 1665, regulating the order of the succession, and declaring what the new constitution of the kingdom was. One article of this decree declares, that 'the hereditary kings of Denmark and Norway shall be, *and indeed ought to be*, looked upon by all their subjects as the only supreme chiefs which they have upon the earth. *They shall be above all human laws;* and shall acknowledge, in all ecclesiastical and civil affairs, no other judge or superior than God alone.' By another, it is declared, 'the king alone shall have the right of imposing taxes, and of raising contributions of all kinds; since it is clear that we can only defend kingdoms and provinces with armies, and maintain troops, *by means of supplies which are levied upon the subjects.*' It is also declared, that 'the king shall not be obliged,' on coming to the throne, 'to take any oath, or to make any engagement, under whatever name or title it may be, since in quality of a free and absolute monarch, his subjects cannot impose on him the necessity of an oath, or prescribe any conditions which limit his authority.'*

In terms of the same decree, the king is major on completing his 13th year. He presides at the council of state, which takes special cognizance of all matters of consequence. The different ministerial functions are exercised by colleges or councils with presidents: the college or council of the *chancellorship* has the administration of justice, general police, the church, public instruction, and all that regards the interior of the kingdom; that of the *finances* lays on taxes, watches over all the pecuniary affairs of the state, and has under its administration the exchequer, the revenues, crown lands, &c; the college of *economy and trade* has under its care manufactures and whatever regards industry. The bailiffs have nearly the same power as prefects in France; a supreme court, where the king himself

* See copy of this decree in Travels, by William Rae Wilson, Esq., in Norway, &c. App. No. xvi. London, 1826.

sometimes presides, determines civil and criminal causes in the last resort: the punishment of death is very rarely pronounced.

Orders.

The clergy do not form a separate order: the only distinct classes in the state are the nobility, the burgesses, and the peasantry. Every royal functionary belongs to the class of nobles. The counts and barons enjoy great privileges: these titles, and some others, are subjected to a tax, called tax upon rank; and the honour of being styled *his excellency* is given to those who choose to pay for it. The nobles have preserved many peculiar rights, which, however, vary in the Danish and German provinces; thus, in Holstein and Lauenburg, where their ancient constitution has been guaranteed by the Germanic diet, the noblesse exercise supreme power in their own domains; on the other hand, the Frieslanders of the Isles which lie upon the western coast of Sleswick, and the inhabitants of the city of Altona in Holstein, enjoy a very ample liberty.

Privileges of some provinces.

Peasantry.

Till 1787 the peasantry on the estates of the nobility were in a most degraded condition. They and their posterity were unalterably fixed to the estates on which they were born; and, when it was sold, the peasants, with their wives and children, were transferred along with it. These abominable chains were broken in the year above mentioned, through the exertions of the present king of Denmark, then crown prince, by the issuing an edict which restored them to their liberty. Finally, the Danish government manifests a paternal spirit in the exercise of its power, and is very tolerant in regard to religion: the confession of Augsburgh is the predominant religion; but Roman Catholics, Reformed, Mennonites,* and even Jews, are admitted without distinction to public employments and dignities. His German provinces constitute his Danish majesty a member of the Germanic confederation, to which he furnishes a corps of 8000 men; they give him also a voice in the Diet.

* The Mennonites deny the baptism of infants, and hold that adults alone ought, according to the New Testament, to be baptised. They baptise by immersion. Some of their views correspond much with those held by the Society of *Friends*, or *Quakers*.

BOOK CXLIX.

We have neglected nothing to give a correct view of this country as a whole; an excursion to the principal cities and towns still remains to be made; it will be short, because they are not numerous. The coasts of Denmark are as pleasant and well-cultivated as those of Sweden are barren and wild: their thick groves, says a traveller,* the gentle declivities of their hills, the meadows which descend softly to the very border of the sea, and the green of the emerald, which, during the fine season, forms the general colour of this agreeable landscape, produce an enchanting coup-d'œil. We cannot see the Strait of the Sound, covered with vessels of every nation submitting to a duty which brings in two or three millions of francs annually to the crown of Denmark, without being astonished that a power of the fifth order should have been able to render tributary all the nations which trade to the Baltic. The first commencement of this impost is unknown: it is certain, however, that in the 15th century it rested upon a very ancient custom. It is probable that it had for its origin the expense of the building and maintaining several light-houses placed by the Danes on the coast for the benefit of navigators, and which, according to stipulations now forgotten, they consented to defray the expense of, by a toll imposed on every ship passing the sound.†

Aspect of the Danish coast.

Sound duties.

The capital of Denmark, called in the language of the country *Kiœbenhavn*, occupies, in the Sound, the bottom of a gulf in the island of Zealand, besides a part of the northern extremity of the small isle of *Amak* or *Amager*. Its foundation is attributed to bishop Axel, who, in 1168, obtained from the reigning king of Denmark the concession of a small piece of ground occupied by a hamlet of fishermen, and protected it by raising fortifications. In less than a century it had become considerable enough to obtain the privileges of a city; and in the 14th century, it became the residence of the court. Its buildings of wood, destroyed by violent fires in 1728, in 1794 and 1795, were re-

Copenhagen.

* Coxe, in his travels in Denmark, &c.

† May not this toll have had its origin in the ninth or following centuries, when the Danes were masters of these seas, and probably chose, in this way, to declare their pre-eminence?

Disasters of Copenhagen.

placed by elegant buildings and regular streets. It was regarded as one of the finest cities in Europe, when in 1807, surprised in the time of peace by a British squadron, it endured a dreadful bombardment, which destroyed its cathedral, a part of its university, mutilated several of its principal edifices, and destroyed several hundred houses. Its fleet, and the greater part of the warlike supplies of all kinds, accumulated in its magazines and arsenals, were carried to England. It was thus that Great Britain repaid the refusal given by Denmark to enter into the coalition against France. On the 18th Nov. 1824, a dreadful hurricane brought the waters of the sea into the city, and caused great destruction. In spite of disasters so recent, Copenhagen, defended by 24 bastions, by fosses filled with water, and by a strong citadel, is still one of the finest capitals in Europe. There are in the city 10 public squares and 5 markets, 3 royal palaces, 9 parish churches, a Roman Catholic chapel, 3 convents, 1 Moravian meeting-house, 5 Jewish synagogues, 1 hospital for foundlings, 13 hospitals, and 30 houses for the reception of the poor. Seen from the narrow entrance of the harbour, which is able to contain 500 merchant ships, besides the royal navy, it presents a magnificent appearance; its three quarters, the old city, the new city, and Christiansavn, which formerly bore the character of an origin more or less ancient, owe to contemporary repairs their modern elegance. The old city, or Copenhagen properly so called, separated from the new city by the new canal, is not surpassed by it: it is even larger and more populous; its houses, though built of brick and wood, have a fine appearance: there is here seen the large square of the new market, the irregularity of which almost disappears in presence of the buildings which ornament it, such as the palace of Charlottenburg, formerly the residence of the court, and now occupied by the academy of fine arts, and by a superb gallery of paintings, — the artillery depot, the theatre, and the equestrian statue of Christian V. On the side of the harbour stand the exchange and the bank. The old city also contains the palace of prince Frederic; the arsenal, where is the royal library composed of 250,000 monevls, and the

Its quarters.

BOOK CXLIX.

Arabic manuscripts of Niebuhr; the university, which possesses a fine library, several scientific collections, a botanical garden, and an observatory established in a tower of a singu r construction. The finest part of the new city is what they call Fredericstadt. The two principal edifices of this quarter are, the ancient royal castle of Rosenbourg, which contains a fine collection of antiquities, and the magnificent hall in which the king opens the sittings of the high court of justice, and whose garden serves as a public walk; and Amalienbourg, a building composed of four distinct palaces, — those of the king, his son, his brother, and the navy school, ranged around an octagonal square, the centre of which is occupied by the equestrian statue of Frederic V. In the isle of Amak, Christiansavn, which bears the name of Christian IV, its founder, presents regular and well-built streets; its squares are handsome and large; it contains docks for building, the large warehouse of the India Company, the port for ships of war, and the church of the Saviour, the finest in Copenhagen: that of the Trinity, the dome of which contains the university library and the large globe of Tycho Brahé, cannot, notwithstanding its beauty, be compared to it.

Literary establishments.

Copenhagen possesses a great number of literary establishments and academical societies: the most important of these are — the royal society of sciences, those of natural history, medicine, oriental languages, and Scandinavian literature, a branch of which last mentioned institution is established at Reykiavik in Iceland. To a very late period, Copenhagen might be considered as the centre of the industry and trade of the kingdom. In 1826, there were reckoned in Copenhagen about two hundred and forty distilleries, fifty brew-houses, thirty manufactories of tobacco, twenty of woollen cloth, fifteen of cotton goods, eighteen of hats, twenty-four of gloves, thirty of linen, twenty-nine tan-works, and various others which employed more than 11,000 people, or nearly one-tenth of the population. It was at that time calculated that more than 5000 vessels entered the port; but the prohibitory system has since that date brought upon this city the results which, sooner or later are to be expected; strangers no longer come to Copenhagen to seek

Industry and trade.

brandy distilled there; its other productions can no longer support foreign competition, and the English and Americans have, by their rivalship, given a mortal blow to its commercial relations with the Indies. It is now reduced to the single branch of home consumption; and the whole business of Denmark is concentrated at Altona, which has been long a free port. The ruin of industry has considerably lowered the value of houses at Copenhagen: very recently indeed, proprietors of houses have been known to sell them, from inability to pay the taxes.

Police.

The police of this capital is under the surveillance of a special establishment; the public safety is entrusted to the garrison, and to a national guard; companies of fire-men are spread over the different quarters; a commission of physicians and surgeons has the charge of watching over the public health, a surveillance the more necessary, that the air of Copenhagen is moist and unwholesome, that the water is bad, and that the mortality is greater than in other towns of the kingdom.

Environs of Copenhagen.

Let us notice the most remarkable places in the environs of Copenhagen. *Frederiksberg*, a magnificent castle, the constant summer-residence of the king, is built upon a height: the public enjoy the splendid sight of its fine gardens, which are open to them. *Frederiksbourg*, another royal castle, is a fine specimen of the architecture of the seventeenth century: the hall of the knights is deserving of much attention. *Roeskilde*, a small city of 2000 souls, formerly the capital of Denmark, now receives the mortal remains of her kings. *Roegers-Preis* is still a royal residence, where repose the ashes of ancient heroes of the North, and of many celebrated men: we see there the tomb of the great Bernstorff and that of Tycho Brahé. *Elsineur*, in Danish *Helsingoer*, is situated on the coast, eight leagues to the north of Copenhagen. It is pretty well built: many geographers speak erroneously of its harbour: it has no harbour but a small road-stead, where the ships that pass the Sound cast anchor, to take in supplies and to pay the toll, to which all vessels are subjected, and which amounts to one per cent on the value of merchandize belonging to privileged nations, and one and a fourth in regard to others

Élsineur.

BOOK CXLIX.

and even the Danes themselves. Near Elsineur rises on the coast the fortress of *Kronberg* or *Kronenbourg*, where was shut up, in 1771, the unfortunate queen of Denmark, Caroline Matilda of England, the sister of George III, the victim of intrigue and calumny. A royal mansion, not far from Kronenbourg, is pointed out to strangers as the spot where, in olden time, stood the palace or castle, the scene of Shakspeare's play of Hamlet.

Islands.

The island of *Bornholm*, situated thirty-two leagues from that of Zealand in the Baltic sea, is peopled by 20,000 inhabitants; it contains seven towns and twenty-one parishes; the capital is *Roenne*, known for its potteries and watch and clock-making: it annually exports watches to the value of about 13,000 rix-dollars. The little isle of *Mœen*, at the southern extremity of Zealand, containing 7000 inhabitants, has for its chief town *Steege*, where the only manufacturing establishment is a tanwork. The island of *Fionia*, in Danish *Fyen*, between Sleswick and Zealand, is in length eighteen leagues by twelve of average breadth, and has 154 of surface and 110,000 inhabitants. *Odensee*, its capital, was first named *Othins-Ey*, that is, the *domain of Odin*. It stands in the centre of the island, in the midst of a large plain. Gloves, soap, and cloths are manufactured here. Its cathedral is handsome; it has a university and two libraries, and is one of the prettiest towns in Denmark. *Svendborg* has tanworks and stocking-manufactures, and carries on a great trade in the exportation of rye. The island of *Langeland*, which signifies *long land*, extends from south-east to north-west, between Fionia and Laaland, and contains 11,000 inhabitants; *Rudkioebing*, its principal town, also exports rye. *Laaland* or *Lolland*, peopled by 4000 souls, has for its chief town *Mariebœe*, which is enriched by its trade in grain. The little isle of *Falster*, to the east of Laaland, numbers 16,000 inhabitants: *Nikioebing*, its chief town, is magnificently situated; the king possesses there a fine castle, formerly the abode of the queens-dowager of Denmark. *Sam-Soee*, *Fanoee*, *Anholt*, where there is a light-house, *Lysoee* and other small islands, are too unimportant to be particularly noticed.

Aalborg.

In the Danish peninsula, *Aalborg*, in northern Jutland,

the seat of a bishopric, is a city surrounded by moats, and contains soap-works, an academy, schools and libraries, an hospital and two alms-houses. Its harbour, in the Lym-Fiord, receives annually 500 vessels, which export grain and herrings. *Viborg*, one of the most ancient cities in Denmark, was formerly of more importance than now; there is still held there, about the end of June, a fair which attracts a great number of strangers. *Aarhus*, in a gulf on the eastern side, has manufactures of tobacco, of woollen and cotton cloth, with a small harbour from which grain and cattle are exported. Its cathedral, a Gothic monument, is said to be the loftiest in Denmark. *Randers*, on the Guden-Aae, possesses manufactures similar to those of Aarhus. The finest horses and the best cattle come from the environs of this town. *Ripe* or *Ripen*, at the mouth of the Nibes, on the western coast, carries on a great trade in cloth, and contains a cathedral, where are to be seen the tombs of several Danish kings. *Fredericia*, which wants a good harbour to render it of importance, stands upon a promontory commanding the northern entrance into the Little Belt. There is collected here a duty on all the vessels which pass this strait. In southern Jutland, *Sleswick* is the capital of the dutchy to which this city gives its name, whose true orthography is *Schleswig*, because it is situated at the extremity of the arm of the sea called *Schley*, on the border of which it rises in the form of an amphitheatre. The finest of its buildings is the castle of Gottorp, the residence of the Governor-General of this dutchy, and of that of Holstein. *Flensbourg* or *Flensborg*, six leagues to the north of Sleswick, is a neat well built town; its public squares are adorned with fountains; the town-house, exchange, and theatre, are handsome buildings. This is the most flourishing town in Jutland; it contains 10 sugar refining-houses, besides soap-works, oil-mills, and manufactures of tobacco. Without its ill-preserved walls there is a brass-foundry and extensive tile-works. Its harbour, situated at the western extremity of *Flensborg-Fiord*, is frequented annually by more than 800 vessels, 250 of which belong to the place. The territory lying between Flensborg and Sleswick still bears the name of *Angeln*. We are bound to believe that this was

Sleswick.

Flensborg.

BOOK CXLIX.

a part of the country of the Angli, a people who perform so important a part in history, but who, according to the learned *Weddegen*, formed only a colony of the *Angrivarii*, who occupied Holstein and a part of Westphalia.

Husum, at the mouth of the Hever; *Tondern*, on the Widau; *Apenrade*, whose small harbour, at the bottom of a gulf, carries on a considerable trade; *Hadersleben*, on the eastern coast; small towns which we cannot entirely omit, because they are the capitals of bailiwicks, present nothing particular. Nor ought we to forget the small islands which border the western coast. *Fanoee*, more considerable than the island of the same name, which lies in the little Belt, is inhabited by fishermen and builders of small merchant vessels; *Roemoee* is less industrious; *Sylt* rears cattle, and produces good seamen; *Foehr*, peopled by 6000 souls, is frequented for its sea-bathing, and possesses a bed of oysters, of which it sends a vast quantity to Hamburgh: it is the rendezvous of so great a number of wild ducks, that it is estimated more than 100,000 are taken annually. *Nordstrand* possesses a valuable breed of horned cattle: its cows give each day 22 pints of milk. *Pelworn*, without the strong dikes that protect it, would be swallowed up by the sea; it forms, with Nordstrand and several small islets, the remains of a large island, the greater part of which disappeared under the force of the waves in 1634. Near the eastern coast, *Alsen*, 7 leagues in length and 2 in breadth, with a population of about 16,000 souls, is, from its woods, small lakes, and state of cultivation, one of the most agreeable islands in the Baltic. *Sonderbourg*, its chief town, possesses a royal castle, a good harbour; and an academy. *Avroee*, consisting of lands fertile in grain and kitchen vegetables, supports more than 8000 inhabitants. *Femern*, not less rich than the preceding, is better peopled: its inhabitants have preserved their ancient and simple manners. *Burg*, an ancient town which stands in the centre of the island, is the capital of a bailiwick.

Islands on the western coast.

Islands on the eastern coast.

The dutchy of Holstein has several subdivisions: Holstein properly so called, *Dithmarschen*, the lordship of *Pinneberg*, the county of *Randzau*, and the territory of the thirty parishes of the noblesse. The capital of this feudal

Dutchy of Holstein.

assemblage is *Gluckstadt*. It is regularly built on the right bank of the mouth of the Elbe: many canals intersect it; but drinkable water is so scarce, that the inhabitants are obliged to collect rain water in cisterns. It was founded, in 1617, by Christian IV. *Kiel* is the most ancient town in Holstein, being mentioned in history as early as the eleventh century. It is distant about four miles from the Baltic, at the inland extremity of a small gulf, called the *Kieler Fiord*, justly celebrated for its beauty. The harbour is secure, and well situated for trade: more than 500 vessels annually enter it. There is no extensive manufacture but that of hats. Kiel is a handsome town, and stands in the midst of delightful scenery. The borders of the firth are eminently beautiful, being lined with gentle rising grounds clothed with woods sweeping down to the edge of the water, while the lands around are in a high state of cultivation. Along the shore are several little villages, which enliven the prospect; and among the hills glides the river Swentin, till it loses itself in the firth. On a hill, in the environs of the city, is seen a handsome royal palace built by the inhabitants. The church of St Nicholas is a fine old building. The university, which was founded in 1665 by Christian Albert, duke of Holstein, is a plain and not very capacious building, affording no accommodation for the residence of students, nor even a sufficiency of apartments for the professors' use, many of whom (thirty in number) give lectures in their own houses. It is particularly distinguished for medical science, and the number of students is upon the increase. In 1806, they amounted to only 100: in 1820, they had increased to 270, of whom 50 were students of medicine. The opening of the new year is celebrated by the students in the following manner. Before midnight, they assemble in the market-place within a circle formed of torches, and when the clock has struck twelve, they sing Voss's celebrated hymn, beginning, 'The year's last hour;' after which a general huzza hails the entry of the new year. They then go round the streets with their torches, halting at the professors' doors; while a deputed select body enter and present the students' congratulations. After receiving the professors' answers, a

Gluckstadt

Kiel.

BOOK CXLIX.

bonfire and hymn to liberty close their proceedings. The library of the university contains 60,000 volumes. The tone of society in Kiel is decidedly literary; and the university contains among its professors names of distinguished literary eminence. English literature is held in high estimation. Besides the university, it contains a celebrated Latin school, an orphan-house, a poor-house, two infirmaries, and a botanic garden; besides valuable private collections of pictures and antiquities.

Rendsbourg.

Rendsbourg is probably the best built city in Holstein; it stands upon the banks of a canal which unites with the Eyder. It is important on account of its arsenal, its magazines, its barracks, and above all, its fortifications. It is the principal fortress of continental Denmark, since the fortifications of Gluckstadt were razed. Rendsbourg is interesting, as being the ancient limit of the Roman empire, notified by an inscription on one of the gates. *Heydé* is a small town only interesting from its schools. *Preetz*, upon the river Swentin, some miles to the south-east of Kiel, contains about 400 houses and 3000 inhabitants, and carries on some trade in the making of shoes and of soap. It contains what was originally a convent, but now converted into a sanctuary for the daughters of the Sleswick and Holstein nobility. It possesses also an orphan and a poor house; and the pastor's library, as it is called, founded in 1681 by a Hamburg clergyman, a native of Preetz, contains 9000 volumes. The *Probsty* of *Preetz* is a district to the eastward of Kiel, and on the east side of the Fiord, containing a population of 6000 souls, occupying twenty-four towns or villages. The name is as old as the thirteenth century: and the people, who have lived during several centuries secluded from their neighbours, are believed to be a colony of the Wendians or Vandals, who inhabited the borders of the Baltic Sea, towards the mouths of the Oder and the Vistula. They are large in stature, with a physiognomy essentially distinct from both Danes and Germans; and their dress and manners also differ materially from the people around them, retaining, at their marriages and other great occasions, a variety of customs and ceremonies peculiar to themselves. Till within

Preetz.

Probsty of Preetz.

the last 40 or 50 years, the Probsteiers had no intercourse with strangers: it was positively forbidden, and the young people that married out of their own tribe were excluded from the society; but this state of seclusion is gradually wearing away, and probably, before the lapse of another half century, they will be completely mingled with the surrounding population. They are an agricultural people, and many of them in the harvest season go to a considerable distance for employment. They are also skilful in thatching, in plaiting of straw and similar works, besides weaving and spinning. The coast of the Baltic here is subject to great changes, and severe injury has been done by tempests and inundations, large tracts of land having been overflowed, and villages overwhelmed or insulated. The town of Preetz is the residence of the *probst* or provost of the *Probsty*.*

Ploen.

To the south of Preetz lies the small town of *Ploen*, romantically situated on a stripe of land between two lakes, so narrow as scarcely to afford room for a single street. The southernmost of these two lakes is particularly beautiful, being adorned with overhanging woods and highly cultivated hills, with an island finely wooded. The town is crowned with a castle built on the summit of a steep hill, rising from the end of the principal street. About ten miles to the north of Gluckstadt, and in the river Stör or Stöer, stands *Itzehoe*, anciently Essefeld, sheltered on the north by considerable woods. The streets are handsome, and many of them are planted, as usual, with trees. It is a town of some importance, and has ships employed in the Greenland trade. It has two churches. As early as 809, a strong castle was built here by Charlemagne. Near Itzehoe, on a sandy heath to the south, are to be seen a variety of green hillocks. These are artificial, are called *Hünengraber*, and are monuments of the old warriors of the North. They are not uncommon throughout Holstein. Many of them have been opened, and an apartment, rude enough, is generally found within, containing, besides an urn, an old sword, axe, or other weapon. Near Albers-

Itzehoe.

* See Downes' Letters from Mecklenburgh and Holstein. Lond. 1822.

BOOK CXLIX.

dorff, on the confines of Sleswick and Holstein, in what is called *De Brut-Kamp* (the '*Spouse's Plain*'), an oblong field inclosed with hedges and nearly encompassed with trees, is to be seen an immense mass of granite supported by five much smaller stones, and forming a kind of circular chamber within. All round the bottom of the hillock, on which this stone stands, grow oak-trees, thorns, sloe-trees, &c. In appearance it is similar to the cromlechs or Druidical altars, as they are supposed to be, which abound in Ireland, and their origin is probably similar. To the south of Itzehoe, in the middle of an elevated sandy plain, the famous obelisk is erected, which, according to popular tradition, was built by Henry, Count Ranzau, in the 16th century, in consequence of a wager he laid with Frederic II, of Denmark. 'The conditions of this wager were, that the Count should build on his estate in one night a pyramid or obelisk, the top of which should be higher than that of the steeple of Krempe, a neighbouring village. He accordingly chose the loftiest situation he could find; and, assembling a number of workmen, raised within the limited time, and on the summit of the hill of Nordho, a low and rude obelisk of granite, supported by a square base, the top of which was thus more elevated than that of the steeple.'* The obelisk still remains; but the steeple and church of Krempe were blown up in January 1814, when employed by the Swedes as a powder-magazine. The obelisk has several curious inscriptions upon it. Henry, Count Ranzau, was a man of eminence in his age, attached to literature, and himself an author. In his castle of Wardsbeck did the celebrated Tycho Brahé find an asylum, when, persecuted by his enemies, he withdrew from the island of Huen, and there did he remain, till invited to Prague by the emperor Rodolph II, where he died.

Cromlech.

Obelisk.

Elmshorn.

Elmshorn is an extensive and handsome town, lying on the banks of a small river, along which its streets sweep in a direction nearly circular. Some of the houses are very old, with pious sentences inscribed upon them. *Pinneberg* is a pretty little town, situated on the skirt of a

Pinneberg.

* Downes' Letters from Mecklenburgh and Holstein. Lond. 1822.

forest, and watered by a small river. The approach to it is lined with oaks. *Oldesloke*, another handsome town, is situated on the river Trave, and is distinguished for its baths and salt-works. These last were established in the twelfth century by Count Adolphus II, of Holstein. *Altona*, on the right bank of the Elbe, at a short distance from the great trading city of Hamburg, is the second city in the Danish dominions. Its trade is considerable, and it carries on different manufactures, besides embarking deeply in the herring and whale fisheries: but the contrast is striking between the constant stir and bustle of the one city, and the comparative quiet and silence of the other. Altona seems a desert when compared with the never-ending activity that prevails in Hamburg. It is built partly on the declivity of a hill, and the streets are for the most part wide and airy. The *Palmaille* (Pall Mall) is a fine street, of considerable length, with handsome houses, and along the middle of it runs a shady walk, bordered on each side by a double row of lofty trees — oaks, lindens, and acacias. Altona was founded about the time of the Reformation by refugees of the old religion, who did not enjoy in Hamburg all the liberty they wished and were entitled to. Its vicinity to that city excited jealousy in the Hamburghers, and when it was burnt down in 1547, an ineffectual exertion was made to prevent its being rebuilt. Frederick III, of Denmark, took it under his especial protection, and conferred upon it many favours. Notwithstanding its original inhabitants were Roman Catholics, Altona has ever been noted for religious toleration; and at this moment there are to be found in it all classes of religious parties, with perfect freedom of worship. There are in it churches or chapels belonging to the Lutherans, German and French Reformed, Roman Catholics, Mennonites, German and Portuguese Jews. The most remarkable event in the history of Altona, is its destruction by the Swedes on the 9th January 1713, a blot in the history of that honourable people. Voltaire relates it in his usual lively manner. The Danes had burnt Stade, a city in the dutchy of Bremen, then part of the Swedish dominions. After the victory obtained by Steinbock, the Swedish general, at

Altona.

BOOK CXLIX.

Gadebusch in Mecklenburg, over the Saxons and Danes, he determined to avenge the loss of Stade by the destruction of Altona, then a flourishing city. 'Arriving in sight of Altona,' says the historian, 'he by a trumpet commanded the inhabitants to withdraw from the place with what they could carry with them, as he was determined to destroy it from the foundations. The magistrates threw themselves at his feet, and offered one hundred thousand crowns in name of ransom. Steinbock demanded two hundred thousand. The Altonese begged time to send to their correspondents in Hamburg, and promised payment by the day following. The Swedish general replied that the money must be instantly paid, otherwise Altona would be set on fire. The soldiers were already in the suburbs with torches in their hands; and the city was without defence, except a wooden gate and a ditch completely dry. On the 9th January 1713, during an exceedingly cold season, and in the middle of the night, these unfortunate people were compelled to fly. A violent wind from the north, while it increased the cold, helped to spread the flames throughout the city, and to render more insupportable the sufferings to which the people were exposed in the open fields. Men and women, bending under the burthen of such moveables as they were able to take with them, hurried along, weeping and lamenting, towards the neighbouring rising grounds, at the time covered with snow. Some people were to be seen carrying on their shoulders the aged and paralytic. Several women newly accouchées escaped with their infants, only to die of cold on the rising grounds, from whence they beheld their homes in flames. The inhabitants had not all of them left the city, when the Swedes set fire to it. The houses were almost wholly of wood, and so quickly did the flames perform their work, that next day it would scarcely have been known that a flourishing city had stood there! To add to the misery of these poor people, thus ferociously driven from their homes, — when the aged, the sick, and the women of feeble constitutions dragged themselves to the gates of Hamburg, and begged admission, it was refused, on the pretext that there had been in Altona contagious sickness, and that they durst

not expose their own city to the risk of infection!'* How true are the words of the English poet:

> 'There is no flesh in man's obdurate heart;
> It does not feel for man!'
>
> COWPER.

The remains of Klopstock lie in a burial-ground at *Ottensen*, a village, which, from its proximity, may be reckoned a suburb of Altona. Between Altona and Hamburg are the cemeteries belonging to the latter city, remarkable for their neatness and simplicity, being laid out in compartments, intersected by avenues, and planted with the black poplar, weeping ash, lindens, &c. The fishing village of Blankanese, on the banks of the Elbe, below Altona, is deserving the attention of the traveller from its cleanness and picturesque situation.

Dutchy of Lauenbourg

The small dutchy of Lauenbourg formerly made part of the French department of the Mouths of the Elbe: by the treaty of 1815 it fell to Prussia, and was by that power exchanged for Swedish Pomerania, which had been given to Denmark by Sweden in exchange for Norway. This dutchy is divided into two bailiwicks. *Ratzebourg* is its capital, picturesquely situated in an island on a lake to which it has given its name, and communicating by two bridges with the opposite shores. The town itself is built entirely of red bricks, and the houses are roofed with red tiles, so that to the eye it presents a clump of red brick-dust. It is a place of great antiquity, the church having been erected in 1157. The small river of Wackenitz forms a means of active communication between Ratzebourg and the port of Lubeck. But the greatest peculiarity about Ratzebourg is, that two of its quarters called *Domholt* and *Palmberg* belong to the grand-duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz. *Lauenbourg*, the most southern city in Denmark, stands upon the right bank of the Elbe, at the point of junction of that river and the canal of Steckenitz. It contains soap-works, brew-houses, and manufactories of common Dutch-ware: the toll established upon the Elbe

Lauenbourg.

* Voltaire, Histoire de Charles XII, lib. 7.

BOOK CXLIX.

brings in 75,000 florins per annum. Lauenbourg derives its name from an old castle, of which the remains are still seen, built by Henry the Lion, and named in honour of him *Loewenburg* (Fort of the Lion). In this castle was signed in 1803 the treaty by which Hanover was given up to France.

Fœroe islands.

Situated between the Shetland islands and Iceland, the archipelago of *Foeroe* is attached to the government of Iceland. However, this small archipelago, which rises in the bosom of the Atlantic Ocean, belongs to Europe; whilst Iceland, considered in a physical relation, is a dependance of Greenland, a country which forms part of America.* The *Foeroe* or *Faroeer* islands were discovered during the ninth century by the Norwegians, who formed a settlement there. They gave them the name of *Faroeer*, from the word *faar*, which, in the Scandinavian language, signifies *sheep*, because that animal was found in sole possession of the island. These islands are thirty-five in number, seventeen of which are inhabited. The total population is about 6000 souls. *Stroemoe* is the largest, thirteen leagues in length by five in breadth; *Asteroee*, to the west, and *Suderoee*, to the south, are the next in importance: the others, *Sandoee*, *Waargoee*, *Bordœe*, *Windoere*, diminish gradually in size, and are surrounded by twenty-eight still smaller islands, some of which have not even a square league. The greater part of these islands are covered with mountains of an igneous origin, which rise from 1800 to 2000 feet above the level of the ocean; the decomposition of the rocks, of which they are formed, produces a gravelish and blackish earth, which is covered with pasturage so much the richer from its being watered by numerous rivulets; bays deeply indented surround these islands, and increase the dangers presented by a navigation full of shoals and rapid currents. The climate is not so cold as the latitude would indicate:† the frosts last little more than a month, and the winter is seldom rigorous enough to cover the bays with ice. Summer, however, continues only during the two months of July and August;

* Iceland is described, book lxxvii, vol. v.

† They lie between 61.20 and 62.30 of north latitude, and between 7.55 and 10.25 of west longitude from Paris.

but by one of those compensations which the wisdom of nature presents, the furious storms which desolate these islands purify the air, by chasing to a distance the pestilential miasmata which otherwise would threaten the inhabitants. Wheat rarely ripens: barley, rye, and leguminous plants succeed well. But the rearing of cattle is much more attended to than agriculture. The horse, the ox, and other domestic animals are of a good breed but small size: the sheep are covered with a tolerably fine fleece. The whale and herring fishery, and the pursuit of aquatic birds, bring great profits to the inhabitants. The knitting of woollen stockings is also beneficial; they export about 120,000 pairs per annum. The Foeroe islands are divided into six districts and seventeen parishes, the government of which is confided to a bailiff who resides at *Thorshavn*, the only town in the islands. It is situated on the eastern side of the island Stroemoe: a small fort defends it; and a church, an academy, a Latin school, and an hospital, are its principal edifices.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF

THE DANISH MONARCHY.

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*Administrative Divisions of the Danish Provinces in Europe.**

I. DENMARK PROPER.

Provinces and Dutchies.	Islands.	Cities.	Population.
Seeland or Zealand	Séeland or Zealand	COPENHAGEN	104,000
		Roeskilde	2,000
		Frederiksborg	1,200
		Elsineur	7,000
	Moen	Steege	1,000
	Bornholm	*Roenne*	2,500
	Stromoee	*Thorshavn*	1,500
Fionia	Fionia	ODENSEE	7,000
		Svenborg	2,000
	Langland	Rudkiœbing	1,200
Laaland	Laaland	MARIBOEE	2,000
	Falster	Nykioebing	1,000

II. NORTHERN JUTLAND.

Aalborg	AALBORG	6,500
	Thisted	1,000
Viborg	VIBORG	5,000
Ribe	RIBE	2,000
	Fredericia	4,000
Aarhuus	AARHUUS	6,000
	Randers	4,500

* The names in small CAPITALS are those of the chief towns in a province, those in *italics*, the chief towns of a bailiwick.

III. SOUTHERN JUTLAND.

Provinces and Dutchies.	Islands.	Cities.	Population.
Sleswig		SLESWIG	8,000
		Flensbourg	16,000
		Husum	4,000
		Tondern	2,000
		Apenrade	3,000
		Hadersleben	3,500
	Alsen	*Sonderbourg*	2,500
	Femern	*Burg*	1,000

IV. GERMAN PROVINCES.

Holstein		GLUCKSTADT	5,000
		Kiel	7,000
		Rendsbourg	6,000
		Heyde	2,500
		Preetz	3,000
		Altona	24,000
Lauenbourg		RATZEBOURG	2,000
		Lauenbourg	2,500

Population of the States of Denmark, according to the census made in the end of 1827.

EUROPE.

Danish provinces, comprising the dutchy of Sleswig	1,521,270	1,937,150
Dutchy of Holstein	374,740	
Do. of Lauenbourg	35,640	
Feroe Isles	5,500	

AMERICA.

Iceland		49,820	55,560
Greenland		5,740	
Antilles	Island of Saint Thomas	46,290	46,290
	——— John		
	——— Croix		

AFRICA.

Coasts of Guinea — Christiansborg, Frederiksborg, and some forts	25,000	25,000

ASIA.

Hindostan — Tranquebar and Serampore	61,000	61,000
Total of Danish possessions		2,125,000

Views of the Danish Population in Europe.

Surface in square leagues 2,865 Inhabitants per square league 677

	Legitimate.	Illegitimate.	Total.
Births in 1827	34,315	2,639	36,954
Deaths in 1827	—	—	26,160
Excess of births over deaths			10,794

Proportion of illegitimate to legitimate children	1 to 14
——— of deaths to births	2 to 3
——— of births to the population	1 to 52
——— of deaths to the population	1 to 74

European Population according to their Language.

Speaking Danish	1,320,000 individuals.
——— German	550,000
——— Anglo-jutic	18,000
——— Frieslandic	49,000

Number of Cattle.

Horses 500,000. Horned cattle 1,100,000. Sheep 1,500,000.

Average of Exports of Cattle.

Stallions 3,000. Mares 12,000. Cows 4,000. Swine 18,000.

Military Force.

Army		38,000 men,*
Navy	Ships of the line	4
	Frigates	7
	Vessels of inferior size	18

Finances.

Revenue in francs 40,000,000. Public debt 270,000,000.

* According to M. Thaarup, Danish counsellor of state, the army, in 1825, was 60,000 strong.

BOOK CL.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued. — Belgium, or the Netherlands.

BOOK CL.

History and inhabitants.

THE country inhabited by the different tribes of the Belgae, from whom Belgium takes its name, was of much greater extent than the modern territory which goes by that name. From the general description given of it by Caesar, and a comparison of the particular districts, (so far as it can be ascertained,) inhabited by the tribes forming the nation of the Belgae, its bounds seem to have extended from the mouth of the Seine in the English channel to, or nearly to, the banks of the Rhine, the Seine (*Sequana*) and the Marne (*Matrona*) forming the southern boundary, and thus to have embraced not only the Netherlands or Belgium properly so called, but the whole province of Picardy, and such parts of Normandy, the isle of France, Champagne and Lorraine, as lie within the above line, besides part of the Prussian States, lying to the westward of the Rhine. In this country lay the immense forest of the Ardvenna (*Silva Ardvenna*, Caesar, l. 5,) embracing, it appears, great part of the country lying between the Meuse and the Rhine, and the remains of which are still extant in the Forest of the Ardennes. The Belgae distinguished themselves by their bravery and their determined opposition to Roman encroachment and usurpation. Caesar styles them 'the bravest of all the Gauls,' and he assigns, as reasons for this, their distance from the civilization and polite-

ness of Roman Gaul, their thus little intercourse with their more civilized neighbours, and their frequent wars with the Germans on the other side of the Rhine.* It is obvious from his own account, that he had but little to boast of in his wars with these high-spirited tribes, but ultimately they were borne down under the overwhelming pressure of the gigantic power of Rome, and compelled to acknowledge her authority. Yet it would appear, that, all along, some of the tribes upon the coast, as well as their maritime neighbours on the north side of the Rhine, yielded but a nominal subjection to the supremacy of Rome, and maintained, till the fall of that empire, a considerable share of independence. When Rome, in the fourth and fifth centuries, fell by its own weight, and through the incessant attacks of the northern nations, the Belgian provinces became the prey of these intruders, principally of the Saxons and Franks. Without attempting, where in point of fact history gives but little information, to trace the early history of Belgium, suffice it to say, that it formed part of the great empire of Charlemagne, but during the feeble reign of his successors both in France and Germany, it fell under the power of independent chieftains, with territories more or less extensive. During the same period, many of the cities acquired not only immense wealth in the pursuit of commerce, but privileges amounting almost to independence of their local sovereigns. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, Belgium fell under the power of the powerful house of Burgundy, from which it passed by marriage to the house of Austria about the commencement of the sixteenth century, and at the division of the Austrian family into two branches, the Spanish (the elder branch) and German, it became part of the immense possessions of the Spanish Branch. From various causes, it failed to acquire its liberty when the seven more northerly provinces threw off the Spanish yoke, and remained part of the Spanish monarchy till the war of the succession in the beginning of the eighteenth century, when, at the peace of Utrecht, Belgium became part of the possessions of the German branch of the house of Austria.

* Caesar de Bel. Gal. lib. I, c. i.

With that family it continued till conquered by the French in 1794 and 1795, and with them it remained as a part of the French empire, till the downfall of Napoleon's power in 1814. In opposition to the wishes of the people, who utterly disliked an alliance or union with the Dutch, Belgium, by the fiat of the allied powers, became part of the new kingdom of the Netherlands under the Orange family.

Government of the late kingdom of the Netherlands.

Let us cast a coup d'oeil on the political organization of what *was* the monarchy of the United Netherlands. According to a law promulgated on the 24th August 1815, it was governed by a king, who, sharing the legislative power with the States General divided into two chambers, alone had the right of making peace or war, of concluding alliances and ratifying treaties. There was, however, an obligation upon him to advise with the States, whenever the interest or the safety of the country demanded it. The sovereign disposed of civil and military employments, conferred the order of nobility, and governed at his pleasure the colonies. He proposed laws to the Chambers, but they, on the other hand, had also the power of submitting propositions to him which he might adopt or reject. The crown was declared hereditary in the male line, following the right of primogeniture; but females might be called to the throne, after the complete extinction of the male line. The nation was divided into three classes: the nobility or equestrian order, the order of the cities or mercantile order, and that of the inhabitants of the country or landed and agricultural interest. The order of the nobility was represented in the States General by the Upper Chamber, composed of from forty to sixty members, whose prerogatives conferred by the king, were not hereditary, but for life merely. The lower Chamber comprehended 110 deputies, nominated by the provinces, one half by the Belgian, and the other half by the Dutch provinces. These two Chambers, forming the national representation, were assembled every year. In each province, questions of a more immediate or local interest were submitted to the deliberation of deputies from the three orders, who formed the Provincial States, and whose members enjoyed equal rights, equal in-

BOOK CL.

dependence, and equal freedom. These States assembled as often as the king called them together, but at least once a-year.

There are perceivable, in the ensemble and in the details of this organization, advantages not possessed by either the English constitution or French charter.* But the parliamentary debates of the Low Countries revealed to Europe the vicious tendency of certain laws in force; and certain alterations were imperiously called for, such as an alleviation in the burden of taxes, and the introduction of various institutions indispensable to the happiness of the nation, viz, the entire freedom of the press, the appointment of jury trial, and the non-removal of judges. The punishments attendant upon delinquencies of the press, were of a severity not proportioned to the present state of things. One law allowed judges to inflict, for the repression of certain offences, arbitrary punishments, and these of the most degrading nature, such as branding and whipping. It cannot be said that the government of the United Netherlands was altogether opposed to the necessities of the country: several abuses were redressed, and the new methods of instruction were not, as in France, through the instigation and clamours of a stationary but powerful faction, stigmatized as both immoral and dangerous. Hence the number of scholars has been, in Belgium, nearly twice the number of that in France, in proportion to the population of the two countries.

Recent changes.

It has been already remarked, that the people of Belgium were not consulted, when the Belgian provinces were, along with the seven Dutch provinces, formed into one kingdom. The object of the great European powers, who took upon them to model the smaller states as they thought proper, in carrying through this union, was to form, in a quarter which had always been open to French attack, and presented no proper barrier of resistance, a state sufficiently powerful, especially when supported by Great Britain and Prussia, to repel aggression on the part of its southern and

* This has a reference to the state of things in France previous to the revolution in 1830. — *Trans.*

powerful neighbour, and prevent Belgium from becoming what had been so often the case, a mere arena of contention between France and Austria. There were many things, however, that tended to make this union disliked by the Belgians. There existed strong feelings of aversion to the Dutch, arising from different causes, among others, the difference of their religion, the Dutch being of the Reformed religion, while the Belgians were bigoted Roman catholics. Besides, having been for twenty years united to the French empire as an integral part of it, and finding a ready market there for their internal productions, their interests, and their habits and predilections were all French. This was particularly the case in the southern provinces, and in the grand dutchy of Luxemburg. In such a state of things, much wisdom and deep and continued attention to the interests and feelings of the different parties, was on the part of the rulers necessary, to reconcile conflicting opinions and prejudices on one side and another. To give consistence, and insure duration to a body formed of such heterogeneous materials, it became necessary that a paternal government should guarantee to all, by means of the advantages of a representative system, liberty civil and religious, showing impartiality in the conferring the rewards of the state, and taking care not to shock the prejudices of the Roman catholics in Belgium, who were naturally jealous of a protestant sovereign, and of the predilections which he might be supposed to have towards his Dutch and Protestant subjects.

There is too much ground to believe that the Belgians had just cause of complaint against the government of the King of the Netherlands. The severe measures which were adopted to check, as was said, the licentiousness of the Brussels press, with the manifest partiality of the government towards its Dutch subjects, combining with other causes of complaint, and with the dislike that had all along been felt towards the union with Holland, produced a spirit of almost universal dissatisfaction throughout all the Belgian provinces; and the revolution at Paris in the close of July 1830 was the signal for another at Brussels in the month of August following, which has ended in the separation of Belgium from Holland. It appears

BOOK CL.

that the allied powers have consented to this, but difficulties have arisen in the final settlement of the Belgian affairs and the choice of a sovereign, in consequence of the opposition expressed in Belgium to any member of the Nassau family occupying the throne, and the offence that may be given to the great powers of Europe in the object of their choice. A short time will decide a matter, it appears, intimately connected with the peace of the world. Let us now proceed with our description of the country.

Mountains

In Belgium the asperities of the ground are merely small mountains, so small indeed that they may well be considered simply hills: they belong to a group of the Alpine range which predominates in France, and which we have called the Franco-Celtic.* In like manner, those which extend into the grand dutchy of Luxemburg and province of Liege, are merely a prolongation of the chain to which we have formerly given the name of the *Cevenno-Vosgian*.† The branch of the Ardennes, which belongs to the same chain, extends as far as Hainault, and the provinces of Namur and Limbourg.

Rivers.

The Low Countries are, by the smallness of their rise above the level of the ocean, the rendezvous of several rivers which flow majestically across the sandy plains of this flat country. The *Scheld*, (*L'Escaut*) on quitting the French territory, crosses part of Hainault, forms on the east the boundary of West Flanders, divides East Flanders into two parts, and forms the line of demarcation between East Flanders and the Province of Antwerp. It then divides itself into two principal branches, which, in falling into the sea, form the islands that compose the province of Zealand. The *Meuse*, by the Belgians called *Maas*, takes its rise in Lorraine, and seven leagues from the frontiers of France, at the City of Namur, is joined by the *Sambre*; it then, after watering the provinces of Namur, of Liege, and of Limburg, separates North Brabant from Holland, and, uniting itself to the Waal or the Rhine, takes its course to the German Ocean. After this junction, a popular error gives the usurped name of the *Maas* or *Meuse* to the united

* Description of France, p. 164 of this vol. † Ibid.

stream, proceeding upon the mistaken notion that the Waal or Rhine, the greater river, throws itself into the lesser river the Meuse; whilst it is the Waal, the principal arm of the Rhine, which carries into the ocean the united waters. Other arms less considerable assume the name of the Rhine, and disappear amidst the sands of Leyden and in the gulf of Zuydersee.*

Lakes and Marshes.

In Belgium there is no lake of any importance: the marsh called the *Peel* in the provinces of Limburg and Northern Brabant, covers a great extent of ground.

Geological constitution.

A geological examination of the different earths (*terrains*) in Belgium shows us, in the most elevated part of it, viz, in the mountains of the grand dutchy of Luxemburg, quarries of slate-stone which stretch towards the north, surrounded by granitic rocks, and above which there lie towards the east, as far as the banks of the Moselle, ancient limestone strata with organic remains; towards the west, on the contrary, descending towards Brussels, the schisti form a great basin filled with limestone and containing anthracites, the combustible of ancient earths, then sandstone, and lastly all kinds of rocks of carbonized earth. What is most remarkable about these deposits, thus bedded in the midst of the schisti from whence the slate is taken, is, that the rocks which compose them, in place of presenting themselves in inclined beds, rise vertically to the surface of the soil, and hence the immense coal-pits in the environs of Namur and Mons must be worked by means of shafts. What convulsions have not been necessary to give to these beds, originally horizontal, the disposition which they now present? whether we seek the cause of this disorder in frightful sinkings of the ground, or in heavings of the earth proceeding from the terrible action of subterraneous fires? Above the deposits embedded with the schisti, other deposits less ancient, which the chalky formation mixed with clay and sand belonging to the upper sediments covers, stretch themselves over the greater part of the Low Countries, from the frontiers of France to the mouth of the Ems; while the more ancient earths occupy, in a line which may be traced

* See p. 657 of this vol.

BOOK CL.

from Tournay to Maestricht, all the country extending as far as the Moselle.

Configuration of the soil of Flanders.

This country is furrowed by a great number of valleys and dales. 'This irregularity of ground,' says a Belgian savant,* 'the existence of a multitude of small streams, and the mixture of naked rocks with meadows, of arable lands and small forests, give it a very picturesque appearance; but, as is the case in almost every country where the primordial earths predominate, the soil is unfertile, with the exception, however, of parts situated to the north of the Sambre and the Meuse, over which moveable deposits of secondary earths have spread themselves; so that agricultural and mineral riches are there found united; which has led to the remark, that the miner and the mineralogist, accustomed to inhabit barren mountains, were astonished to find themselves, in Hainault, in the midst of plains covered with a brilliant vegetation, and where cultivation is carried to the highest pitch of perfection.' The same observer has remarked, that, on the right bank of the Meuse, the disposition of the valleys presents two distinct modifications. Some of these valleys are straight, wide, of little depth, bordered with gently sloping rising grounds, and inclining from north-east to south-west; but they are crossed by valleys of greater depth, irregular, inclining in every direction, and serving as beds to rivers: a disposition arising from the geological constitution of the country. The other valleys have no affinity with the nature of the soil: they have not made their way across the hard rocks, and have been stopped by aranaceous deposits. They appear to demonstrate that the excavation of valleys cannot be attributed to the erosive action of water, but to the disruptions that have taken place in the hardest rocks, of which the waters have profited to make themselves a passage.

Mines.

The quartzeous rocks, and those which contain amphibole and form strata in the midst of slaty earth, constitute an important branch of quarrying for the paving of roads: in the earth which contains anthracites is found that great

* 'Memoires pour servir a la description geologique des Pays-Bas, de la France,' by M. J. J. d'Omalius d'Halloy.

variety of marbles, constituting one of the mineral riches of the low countries, and especially that species which derives from the numerous remains of marine organized bodies the name of small granite (*petit granite*). The same earth contains in abundance rich mineral ores of iron and lead, and gives birth to the celebrated thermal waters (hot springs) of Chaudfontaine near Liege. Amidst the schistous rocks on the right bank of the Meuse, a country barren or covered with forests, there are quarried those whetstones which are sent to every part of Europe, and those schisti charged with alum which are sold under the name of carpenters' pencils; in fine, from a slaty soil proceed the mineral waters of Spa, which have acquired in Europe so great celebrity.

Climate and cultivation.

In regard to climate, the provinces of Belgium differ from each other chiefly in their being subject to a greater or lesser degree of humidity. In the dutchy of Luxemburg, the climate is healthy and temperate, more moist than cold. The oak, the ash, and the beech, bear sway in the beautiful forests of this province; horned cattle find abundant pasturage; a species of the vine is cultivated, which produces an indifferent wine; fruit-trees are rare; wheat succeeds with difficulty; but the inhabitants derive great advantage from the cultivation of rye and oats, and particularly the potato. In the province of Liege the atmosphere is often hazy; its valleys, fertile and well cultivated, especially that watered by the *Ourthe* and the *Embleve*, yield, in addition to the productions of Luxemburg, wheat of excellent quality; and its territory is equally rich with the other in forests, in game, in swine, and horned cattle. The air of the province of Namur is sharp and healthy; the soil, extremely various, readily admits of cultivation; the sheep have a finer wool, and their flesh is much more succulent, than in the two other provinces. In Hainault an air equally healthy is breathed; they enjoy a climate equally temperate; the same fertility is observable, and the forests, although more scattered, produce timber excellent for carpentry-work. West and East Flanders lie under the influence of a humid climate which frequently gives rise to dangerous fevers; the summer is hot but rainy, and the winter cold; the north-west

winds often render in West Flanders the winter formidable, by the inundations which they occasion. Both these provinces rear horses, too dull, indeed, for riding, but well adapted for the draught. The other domestic animals are remarkable for their excellent condition, and for this they are indebted to their good pasturage. The plants which succeed best in Flanders are tobacco, hemp, madder, and, above all, flax, the principal riches of the country. Destitute of forests, but possessing abundance of turf, they make great use of this as fuel. The provinces of South and North Brabant, and Antwerp, are healthy, although moist; and the soil is particularly fertile, excepting in the northern part of North Brabant, where brushwood and forests of pine still cover some sandy wastes, where the turf accumulates at the bottom of deep bogs. Yet, doubtless, here, as has been done in the territory of Antwerp, incessant labour might transform useless plains into fruitful meadows. Limbourg, no less marshy, cultivates to great advantage the rearing of cattle and bees. The province of North Brabant, noticed here from its immediate proximity to South Brabant, belongs to the kingdom of Holland.

In general, it may be remarked,* with regard to the agriculture of the Netherlands, that it has long been distinguished both for its productiveness and variety; and that the excellence of the Flemish system of manuring, their disuse of fallows, and skill in the rearing of cattle, have been noticed and recommended by the most experienced British agriculturists. The farms in East and West Flanders are in extent commonly about ten, and seldom exceed twenty hectares,† while, in what are called the Walloon Provinces, they are usually from two to three hundred hectares. The industry of the Flemings, without the use of the wheel plough or strong English harrow, has within two hundred years converted a tract of land, originally a barren and sandy heath, into a rich and beautiful garden; and the produce of wheat here is often not less than 32 bushels to two of

* The Editors beg to notice that, for most of what follows regarding the agriculture, manufactures, &c, of the Belgian States, they are indebted to a very able article in the 'Foreign Quarterly Review,' No. X, Vol. v.

† A hectare is equal to two and a-half English acres.

seed, — of oats 60 bushels to three, — whilst scarcely in any part of Great Britain does wheat yield more than from eight to ten times. Considerably more grain is produced than the population requires. The total value of the capital employed in agriculture, in both the Belgian and Dutch provinces,* has, from apparently accurate tables, been estimated at L.433,153,333 sterling, and the *gross* annual produce of agricultural industry at L.50,095,166 sterling, and deducting two-thirds of the gross produce, to defray the price of seed and manure, of labour, of repairs of buildings, and farming utensils, loss arising from the mortality of cattle, and the cost of the food of men and beasts, the net yearly produce is L.16,698,389 sterling.

Manufactures, &c. Iron, &c.

Mines of iron, lead, copper, and coal, are worked in the provinces of Liege, Namur, Hainault, and Luxemburgh, and in these provinces, there were in 1822,93 great furnaces, 206 forges, 68 martinet houses, (for hammering), 19 foundries, 17 laminoirs or rolling houses, and 12 tin factories. Excellent bar and sheet iron, axletrees and nails, machinery and implements of all kinds, are there manufactured. Articles of steel, copper, and bronze, are made in Hainault and Namur: the cutlery of Namur is excellent, and the hardware of Liege of the best quality. The woollen manufacture is carried on briskly at different places, and the Netherlands cloths are much sought for, both from their quality and price, and are exported both to the north of Europe and America. The manufacture of linen, of sail-cloth, of ticking, and of thread both for sewing and lace, is carried on to some extent in a great variety of towns, both in Brabant and Flanders. In East Flanders there are 31,697 looms employed in weaving flax, 6124 for cotton, and 639 for mixed stuffs. The lace trade has not much increased of late years, but the laces of Brussels and Mechlin retain all the delicacy and richness for which they have so long been famed. The cotton trade, both in the spinning and weaving departments, is carried on to a considerable extent. The spinning establishments are principally in East Flan-

Woollen.

Linen.

Lace.

Cotton.

* The estimates were made before the Revolution in 1830, which has separated these provinces.

BOOK CL.

ders and Brabant; and stuffs of all kinds are made in abundance at Ghent, Brussels, Antwerp, Courtray, Bruges, Ypres, Lokeren, and St Nicholas. At Ghent, in particular, this trade flourishes, as may be judged by the fact of its containing 68 steam engines for spinning and weaving, while 25 years ago there was not one in all Flanders, the first having been erected in 1805. Ghent imports annually 40,000 bales of cotton wool, and the new canal, intended to communicate with the Scheld at Ternengen, will give additional facilities for procuring the raw material. There are considerable breweries at Louvain, at Brussels, and at Mechlin. The breweries at Louvain brew about 4000 tuns monthly. There are sugar refineries at Ghent and its neighbourhood; but no distilleries in Belgium of any importance. By a recent calculation,* the annual amount of the manufacturing industry of the Netherlands, embracing both Dutch and Belgian provinces, is 675 million francs, or L.28,125,000 sterling, and the profit to the manufacturer on this is said to be 184 million francs, including the interest upon his capital and stock.

Breweries, &c.

Foreign trade.

The foreign trade of Belgium is carried on almost entirely from Antwerp, and, it would appear, is greatly on the increase. In the year 1822 the number of ships that entered this port was only 580, while in 1829, they amounted to 1028, and its imports in a recent year (1827) exceeded, in all great articles of consumption, excepting tea and tobacco, the two great sea-ports of Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

Roads and canals.

In this growing country new roads are making, and some of those lately made are not inferior to any in Europe. In addition to the numerous old canals, which tend so much to facilitate commerce and promote intercourse among the people, two canals are on the point of completion, viz, one from Ghent to Ternengen, which will connect that city with the mouth of the Scheld; and another from Charleroi to Brussels, and round its whole circuit, so that coals may be brought by water to every part of the city. A third, of far greater magnitude, is in execution, to con-

* See Table at the end of Book CLI, page 670.

nect the Meuse and the Moselle, by a course of fifty leagues, from Liege to Wasserbillig, with two subordinate branches. This is expected to be finished in 1835.

In place of entering into any details here on the important subjects of education, literature, &c, the reader is referred to the Tables which are placed at the close of Book CLI, and which refer, it will be seen, to both divisions of the late kingdom of the Netherlands. These tables convey all the information which it would be warrantable to introduce into a work necessarily so general in its nature as the present.

Religion.

It has been already observed, that the great bulk of the Belgians are of the Roman Catholic persuasion. Under the recently dissolved kingdom of the Netherlands this conferred no peculiar privileges; no religion was considered as being that of the state; all enjoying the same rights, and equal liberty. The newly established state of Belgium has recognised the same principle. It is deserving of notice here, that, under the United Kingdom, the charges for religion, which supplied the spiritual wants of the whole community, excepting the Jews, did not on the whole exceed L.252,056 sterling, for a population of six millions. The revenues of the church of England are four millions sterling!

It may be remarked that the Belgic provinces assimilate in some respects both to Holland and France. Their soil, higher than that of the Dutch provinces, but less elevated than that of the neighbouring French departments, is not so humid as the former, and better cultivated than the latter. The towns in Belgium are better built than in France, and equally neat, equally clean with those in Holland. The inhabitants present several points of resemblance with the two nations betwixt which they lie. The Belgian is as loyal, as much a friend to independence as the Hollander; but by his gaiety, his polished manners, his generosity, and love of luxury and show, he closely resembles the Frenchman.

Cities.

Antwerp.

Let us commence our description of the cities of Belgium with *Antwerp*, (Flem. *Antwerpen*, Fr. *Anvers*) on the bank of the Scheld, which deserves our attention, both from the

recollections of two memorable epochas, and its own actual importance. After having been, as is believed, the city of the *Ambivareti*, a people of whom Caesar speaks; after having survived the ravages of the Normans in the 9th century, it went on, increasing in greatness, till the 16th century, at which time it was regarded one of the richest and most flourishing cities in Europe, possessing a population of more than 200,000 souls. The Dutch, after they had thrown of the Spanish yoke, ruined the commerce, and destroyed the prosperity of Antwerp, by sinking vessels loaded with stones at the mouth of the Scheld, thus interrupting the navigation of the river, excepting to vessels of small burden. Become, after the junction of Belgium to France, the capital of the department of the *Deux-Nethes*,* under the fostering care of Napoleon, who saw its importance in different respects, immense labours raised Antwerp, almost instantaneously, to the rank of one of the principal maritime cities of the French empire. Its cathedral is the wonder of the Low countries, and one of the finest Gothic buildings in Europe: in length it is 500 feet, 230 in breadth, and in height 360; its arches are supported by 125 pillars, forming 230 arcades. Several paintings of Rubens and other great masters decorate the interior; marble pillars of different colours ornament the choir, the chapels, and the front; its spire rises 451 feet above the ground; and it contains one of the finest set of bells in Belgium. Let us ascend to the highest gallery of this pyramidal tower, and throw a coup d'œil over the magnificent spectacle which presents itself to view. We are then placed in the centre of a panorama with a radius of fifteen leagues; we see diverging in every direction the 212 streets of the city, and its twenty-two public squares; we see the hotel-de-ville, famous for its fine architecture, and the houses which surround it, whose height is so great that they much surpass the highest in Paris, and whose triangular pediments, with noble flights of steps, indicate their antiquity; the exchange, one of the finest in Europe, and the church of St James,

* So called from two rivers of that name (*Nethes*) which join the Scheld near Antwerp.

where is to be seen the tomb of Rubens; and, in the fine square of *Meer*, the imperial palace, built by order of Napoleon. The six gates of the city, its superb quays and docks, the magnificent suburb of Bergerhout, the port able to contain more than a thousand vessels, the extensive arsenal, and the citadel, one of the strongest in Belgium, the Scheld whose breadth at some distance from the port is 1600 feet, all render magnificent the appearance of this city, the birth-place of Teniers, of Rubens, of Van Dyck, of Jordaens, and other celebrated men. Looking towards the north-east, there is seen nine leagues from Antwerp, the town of *Turnhout*, where are manufactured laces and different fabrics of linen, hemp and wool; and five leagues to the south *Malines* or *Mechlin*, a city large and well-built, whose ancient cathedral is a most beautiful edifice. Malines.

These boundless plains, whose rich and fertile extent the eye measures without obstacle, do not present one single rising ground; there is nothing but a succession of meadows, arable lands, and woods. Towards the west East Flanders is seen stretching out, with its twenty towns, every one of more importance than another. Four leagues from Antwerp, we arrive by a magnificent road at the elegant town of *Saint Nicholas*, rich from its manufactures; and three leagues beyond that, *Lokeren* is watered by the Durme, which, rendered navigable to the mouths of the Scheld, favours the important trade carried on by this town in grain and in merchandize of every description. Still farther on, three leagues from Lokeren, shine the steeples of *Gand* or *Ghent*, the ancient capital of Flanders, which, in the time of Charles V, surpassed Paris in extent of ground. Its form is triangular: the Scheld, the Lys, and the two small rivers, the Liève and the Moère, form more than twenty-six islands, united by more than 300 bridges. Traces of Spanish domination are still to be recognised in traversing this city; many houses resemble those of Madrid in their architecture, which forms a singular contrast with the number of canals, in which Ghent resembles Amsterdam. Magnificent quays, splendid public squares, agreeable walks, in a walled inclosure of four leagues of circumference, place Ghent in the rank of beau- Ghent.

tiful and large cities; but the population, not exceeding 70,000 souls, being small in proportion to the extent, the aspect of the city is after all monotonous and melancholy. The citadel built by Charles V, is one of the largest in Europe: it is, however, of no great strength, and only gives the city a secondary rank among the fortified towns of the Low Countries. The cathedral, a monument of the munificence of the same Emperor, is over-loaded with ornaments, but the nave is magnificent. The neighbouring tower, called the belfry, has a set of bells celebrated for its number and variety. Philanthropy, with the arts and sciences, possess rich and valuable establishments in this birth-place of the hellenist Daniel Heinsius, of the sculptor Delvaux, and the astronomer Philip Laensberg, —in this industrious and rich city, which for thirty years was the capital of the French department of the Scheld. Charles V was born in this city 24th February 1500. His being a native of Ghent did not however prevent the cruel usage it met with from himself in person in 1540. The crime of the citizens was the assertion of unquestionable rights secured to them by their sovereigns, the ancestors of the emperor, and their inconsiderately taking up arms in support of these rights. Sensible of their folly in attempting to resist a power so overwhelming, they sent ambassadors imploring his mercy. His answer was a terrible one. 'Though he chose to enter the city on the 24th February, his birthday, he was touched with nothing of that tenderness or indulgence, which was natural towards the place of his nativity. Twenty-six of the principal citizens were put to death; a greater number was sent into banishment; the city was declared to have forfeited all its privileges and immunities; the revenues belonging to it were confiscated; its ancient form of government was abolished; the nomination of its magistrates was vested for the future in the Emperor and his successors; a new system of laws and political administration was prescribed, and in order to bridle the seditious spirit of the citizens, orders were given to erect a strong citadel, for defraying the expense of which a fine of 150,000 florins was imposed on the inhabitants, together with an annual tax of 6000 florins for the support

of a garrison.'* Ghent never recovered this blow. An old traveller† says, 'If Ghent has had the honour of giving birth to so great a prince, it was used so roughly afterwards by him, that we may say it had been better for that city he had never been born.'

Alost. *Alost*, (Flem. *Aalst*) on the banks of the *Dender*, five leagues to the south-east of Ghent, contains a town-house remarkable for its antiquity. It had formerly the title of an imperial city.

Oudenarde. *Oudenarde* (Flem. *Oudenaarden*) is celebrated for the battle in 1708, in which the French were compelled to yield to the numerical force of the confederated army of Austrians, Dutch, and English, under the command of Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough.‡ It was dismantled by the French in 1745.

Satisfied with the magnificent spectacle beheld from the top of Antwerp cathedral, let us now traverse the province that we have just run over with our eyes; let us follow one of the pleasant roads that lead from Ghent, its central point, and direct our course towards Bruges, the capital of *West Flanders*. Whoever has travelled this country, must have remarked the freshness and beauty of the higher class of females, whose likenesses we cannot avoid thinking we have already seen in the pictures of the great Flemish masters, and the plump and cheerful countenances of the jolly village dames which the pencil of Teniers has so faithfully represented in his village festivals and tavern scenes. The cities, towns, and hamlets, stand so thick together in this populous country, that, astonished with the sight, one can only exclaim with Philip II, of Spain, '*It is one great city.*'

West Flanders.

Bruges. *Bruges* or *Bruggen*, which, while Belgium remained united to the French empire, was the capital of the department of the Lys, is one of the most ancient Flemish cities. It was a fortified town in 867, and it is even possible that some

* Robertson's History of Charles V, B. VI, anno 1540.

† Misson, Voy. d'Italie, &c.

‡ The battle of Oudenarde was fought 11th July (N. S.) 1708. According to Tindal (continuation of Rapin), the French were superior in number to the allies; and their own accounts admitted the loss of 10,000 killed and taken prisoners, besides cannon, &c. — *Translator's Note.*

BOOK CL.

parts of the walls are of as old a date as the above year. The streets are wide, but the houses with triangular gables give them a Gothic aspect ugly enough. The principal church, dedicated to our lady, is surmounted with a very tall spire, which is seen without difficulty in coming out of the river Thames. This city has given birth to several great men, amongst others, to Louis Bergen, who invented the art of cutting diamonds. It possesses, besides an academy of painting and sculpture, libraries, and rich collections. Its harbour may contain more than 100 ships; but after having been, from the thirteenth to the fifteenth century, one of the first commercial cities in Europe, its prosperity has ever since been on the decline. Still, however, it maintains frequent communications with Ghent, by means of a fine canal, which bears its name; and by another canal, vessels of from 200 to 300 tons, come up from Ostend. Bruges stands in the midst of a fertile and highly-cultivated country, and living is abundantly cheap; but the population, although still considerable (upwards of 30,000), is scanty when compared with the size of the town, and the deserted look it has, reminds the traveller that it has lost the high rank it enjoyed before the evil days of Philip II, of Spain. In the great church of our lady, there stands the monument of the last Duke of Burgundy, Charles the Rash, who was killed in the battle of Nancy 1476. His remains were transferred from Nancy to Bruges by his great grandson, the Emperor Charles V.

Ostend.

Ostend, with less than a third of the population of Bruges, is also threatened with the destruction of its trade; already its harbour, encumbered with sand and gravel, cannot receive large vessels, but at high water.* We ought not to pass by here the famous siege of Ostend in the war for Dutch independence. Indifferently fortified, it yet resisted the attacks of the Spaniards for more than three years, (from 5th July 1601, to 20th September 1604). Above 300,000 cannon shot were fired by the besiegers, whose loss in killed amounted to 73,000 men, while that of the

* It was lately stated in the newspapers, that since the revolution in August and September 1830, the government of Belgium has begun to clear out the harbour of Ostend, which had been neglected by the Dutch government.

besieged is said not to have been greatly inferior. When at last it surrendered, it was 'reduced to a mere mass of ruin. The victors marched in over its crumbled walls and shattered batteries. Scarcely a vestige of the place remained beyond these terrible evidences of destruction. Its ditches filled up with the rubbish of ramparts, bastions, and redoubts, left no distinct line of separation between the operations of its attack and its defence. It resembled rather a vast sepulchre than a ruined town, a mountain of earth and rubbish, without a single house in which the wretched remnant of the inhabitants could hide their heads — a monument of desolation on which victory might have sat and wept.'*

Nine leagues to the south of this city, on the bank of the Yprelee, stands *Ypres*, formerly the rival of Bruges in industry and commerce, but its population was then more considerable than at present. It has still manufactures of woollen stuffs and lace; but its real importance lies in the fortifications erected since the peace in 1815. If, however, we wish to see an industrious city, let us turn our steps to *Courtray*, divided by the Lys into two equal parts; its trade is supported by its manufactures of fine cloths, napery, and lace, which equal those made at Valenciennes. There are two considerable fairs held here. *Cortryck*, its Flemish name, appears to come from *Cortoriacum*, a city of the Gauls, whose site it undoubtedly occupies. Its environs are famous in history for a number of battles. In 1302, a French army was defeated by the Flemings in the battle called *the battle of the Spurs*, because the victors found upon the field of battle more than 4000 gilded spurs. In 1382, Charles VI, of France avenged this defeat in a victory obtained at Rosebecke, where the Flemings sustained a loss of 40,000 men, in which battle their leader James Artavelde, the far-famed brewer of Ghent, was killed. In 1794, an army of young and newly raised Frenchmen twice defeated at Courtray the old troops of the Austrians, supported by the English and Hanoverians.

Courtray.

On the right bank of the Scheld, Hainault contains se-

Fields of battle.

* History of the Netherlands by T. C. Grattan. Lond. 1830.

BOOK CL.

veral places memorable in the annals of war. Near Tournay, *Fontenoy* recalls to memory the victory obtained in 1745, by the French under the celebrated Marechal Saxe over the allied army commanded by the Duke of Cumberland. *Fleurus* is celebrated in the Spanish annals for the victory gained by the troops of Spain over Count Mansfeldt in 1622; for that of Mareschal Luxemburg in 1690 over the imperial army; for the battle of 26th June 1794, where Jourdan defeated the Austrians under the Prince of Saxe-Cobourg, which led to the entire conquest of Belgium by the French; and for that of 15th June 1815 (three days before the battle of Waterloo), where Napolean defeated the Prussians, and compelled them to retreat. In the environs of Mons, *Saint-Denis* and *Steenkerke* witnessed, in 1678 and 1692, the defeat by Luxemburg of the allied forces under the command of William Prince of Orange (king William III.); and at *Jemappe*, Dumouriez was covered with glory on the 6th November 1792. In this battle the present king of the French, Louis Philip, greatly distinguished himself. The Austrians met with a total defeat.

Fontenoy. Fleurus. Steenkerke Jemappe.

Tournay, two leagues from the frontiers of France, is divided by the Scheld into the *old city* and the *new*. In the latter, a superb quay planted with trees, forms the finest and most frequented promenade in the city, the houses are well built, the streets neat and sufficiently straight. The other quarter, much inferior, is the city which formed the residence of several kings of France of the first race, and was erected into a bishopric in the fifth century. The cathedral, whose four dark spires are seen from a considerable distance, is admired for its beauty; the interior is overloaded with sculpture and the richest ornaments. It is believed to have been founded by Childeric, I, whose tomb was accidentally discovered in 1655, in taking down some old houses which surrounded the church. A trench seven feet in depth, brought to light a leathern bag containing more than 100 pieces of gold, and an equal number of silver; the iron part of a hatchet and javelin, a sword-blade, five clasps, a case containing a steel pen or style, the hinges of two writing tablets, a small head of an ox in enamel, and two rings, one of which bore a seal with the words,

Tournay.

Childeriti regis. These different ornaments in gold were accompanied with several figures of bees in gold and silver, which appeared to have belonged to a royal mantle; the whole was mingled with bones, among which were distinguishable two human skulls and the skeleton of a horse, affording a proof that the Franks were accustomed to be interred with their arms, their clothes, their battle horse, their most precious jewels, and perhaps with some spoils of their enemies, for one of the two skulls was most probably the head of a slave or of a vanquished warrior. Tournay, which would accommodate more than 60,000 souls, has not more than the half: it is, however, an industrious and commercial town, and its carpeting, its cloths, its camlets, and its porcelain wares, are known over all Europe.

Mons.

Quitting the fine road to Brussels at *Ath*, a small city, known from its college, and whose fortifications have never been able to resist the attacks of enemies, we take on the right hand the road which leads to *Mons*. This city, which derives its principal wealth from its coal pits, is the capital of the province of Hainault. It is large, and strongly fortified, and there are few places that have suffered more from the inevitable calamities of war. In 1572, Louis of Nassau employed a singular stratagem to make himself master of it. He disguised some of his soldiers as sellers of wine, who conducted into the city carts loaded with casks having a double covering, the outer covering containing wine, and the inner concealing arms. After having paid the duties, the pretended wine-sellers slew the guard and custom-house officers, and opened the gates to their commander. At the coal-mines at *Hornues*, near Mons, M. de Gorges employs 2000 workmen, for whom he has built a handsome town, consisting of 260 neat houses, with a garden to each. The streets are laid out with uniformity, and well paved; and in the centre of the village is a large square, planted with trees, in which is the ball-room for Sunday amusements, the town-hall, and the school of mutual instruction, where 400 children are gratuitously educated. The workmen have the gratuitous use of storehouses for all purposes, and of the luxury of baths, and appear happy and comfortable. The benefits which a

BOOK CL.

great capitalist has it in his power to confer, were never more strikingly exemplified than in this village of Hornues.*

Five leagues beyond the Sambre, which we cross near the town of *Merbesle*, we see on a hill the small but strongly fortified town of *Philippe-ville*, anciently the village of *Corbigni*, fortified in 1555 by the command of the sister of Charles V, Mary, queen of Hungary, and to which she gave the name of her nephew Philip II; and two leagues to the south-west lies the town of *Marienbourg*, of still less importance, built by the same queen. On the right bank of the Meuse, *Dinant* is defended by a good citadel, and contains several churches, one of which appears to be of great antiquity; but we dare not admit the truth of the tradition, that it replaced a temple of Diana, which has given its name to the town.

Dinant.

Namur.

A road equally beautiful and picturesque borders the left bank of the Meuse, and leads to *Namur*, built at the junction of the Sambre with that river. It is believed that this place, renowned in all the wars of the Low Countries, and become stronger than ever since the erection of the kingdom of the Netherlands, has succeeded to the *Oppidum Atuaticorum*, mentioned in Cæsar's Commentaries.† The situation of Namur, at the confluence of two great rivers, favours its trade and industry. Its fine cutlery, and the manufactures of common pottery and leather, occupy a great number of hands; the disposal of its marbles forms one of the most important branches of its trade. Nothing can be more enchanting than the environs of this city. In one place you see the river confined betwixt steep mountains, crowned with thick forests; in another place its bed enlarges, its descent becomes more rapid, the ground lowers, and its waves press rapidly onwards; soon the meadows extend to its banks; it then proceeds slowly, taking large windings, as if to enjoy longer the freshness of the beautiful verdure; its surface crowned with barges, its bed bordered by a road covered with travellers and fields fertilized by labour, present a moving picture, which renders

* For. Quart. Rev. No. X, (Vol. V,) art. 'Netherlands.'
† Cæsar de Bel. Gal. lib. ii, cap. 29 — 34.

the variety in the landscape more interesting; but we must quit this animating scene, rise from hill to hill towards the west, and descend again into the beautiful plains of South Brabant.

The first town we pass through is *Nivelles*, once a place of some importance. At the commencement of the thirteenth century it was surrounded by walls. It has three suburbs, five churches, and an hospital. Forty years ago it was celebrated for an abbey of canonesses, who, in the evening, quitted the religious habit to enjoy the distractions of a worldly life! Their abbess took the title of the Princess of Nivelles. The tower of the clock bears on its summit a man of iron, who strikes the hours with a hammer — a figure called in the country *John of Nivelles*. It is not, however, to this bell-man that we are to attribute the well-known proverb, '*He resembles the dog of John of Nivelles, who flies when he is called.*' This proverb arose from the following circumstance: — According to the accounts of several historians, John II, of Montmorency, father of John, lord of Nivelles, and of Louis, baron of Fosseu, married as his second wife Margaret of Orgemont; the two young men, who probably were not well pleased with their stepmother, withdrew to the court of the count of Flanders, and became the origin of the two branches of the house of Montmorency. Their father summoned them in vain to return; and, on their refusal, treated them as *dogs*, and disinherited them. The summons had been given to the elder brother, John of Nivelles, which gave rise to the popular saying above quoted.

Waterloo.

Quitting the small plateau of Nivelles, let us advance into those plains where the armies of France and England, under Napoleon and Wellington, met to decide the destiny of Europe. *Quatre Bras*, *La Belle-Alliance*, *Mont St Jean*, *Waterloo*, are before us, places which recall to remembrance the bloody struggle, which the soldiers on both sides maintained with heroic courage, in spite of the faults of the two chiefs, and, in which, victory, unfaithful to him who thought he had it, turned to the side of him who did not expect it.

Brussels.

Bruxelles or *Brussels*, the metropolis of all the Belgian provinces, and also the capital of the province of South Bra-

BOOK CL.

bant, is only four leagues from this field of battle, which is now conspicuous from a hill raised by the art of man, and surmounted with the Belgic lion, a gigantic figure, in cast iron. The origin of this city is dated from the eighth century. Saint Gerius, bishop of Arras and Cambray, founded a chapel in a small island formed by the Senne, and this island became the city of Brussels, chosen, from its agreeable situation, by Otho II, as his residence, and afterwards that of the dukes of Lorraine, the dukes of Brabant, and the Austrian governors. Joseph II, transformed its ancient fortifications into a fine promenade: it was a city surrounded merely by a wall, when, from the rank of the capital of the Austrian Netherlands, it descended in 1794 to that of the chief place of the French department of the Dyle. It is built on unequal ground, and several of its streets are very steep. The lower city, the least healthy and the least regular, contains many houses in the Gothic style; but the quarter adjoining to the Park, a magnificent walk, ornamented with marble statues, is composed of wide streets, regularly laid out, and of houses elegantly built; some of them, however, are painted green, yellow, gray, following a custom prevalent in both Holland and Belgium. There are reckoned in this city 290 streets, 13,000 houses, 27 bridges, and 8 public squares. The finest square is the Place Royale, the quadrangular shape of which is formed by the fine portal of the church of Saint James of Condenberg, by many magnificent edifices, and by four porticoes. The great square offers an aspect altogether different; the buildings that surround it are of various kinds of architecture, Spanish, Flemish, and Gothic; the principal is the Hotel-de-Ville, a building flanked by five hexagonal turrets, and surmounted by a steeple 366 feet in height, crowned with a statue of Saint Michael, of gilt copper, of 17 feet, and turning upon a pivot by the slightest wind. The building of this tower took place in 1445. The interior of the edifice is still in the same state of decoration as when Charles V, in 1555, excited to it by the embarrassment raised by a clergy who reproached him with his pretended toleration, abdicated the sovereignty of half the world in favour of the fanatical Philip II. It is in front of this

Squares.

Hotel-de-Ville, as in front of that in Paris, that municipal ceremonies and executions of criminals take place — a monstrous conjunction, which it is painful to take notice of as existing in the nineteenth century. The great square of Sablon is ornamented with a beautiful fountain of white marble, representing a Minerva seated. The square of Saint Michael is not of great extent, but is planted with trees, and surrounded with buildings of elegant architecture. In the square of Monnaie, where most of the buildings are deserving notice, the great theatre-royal is especially distinguishable. On the small rising ground called *Molenberg*, at a short distance from the great square, the antique church of Saint Gudula displays its imposing Gothic front; it is ascended by a long flight of 36 steps; the sculpture of its pulpit, in wood, highly merits attention. In the church of Saint Nicholas there are valuable pictures, and numerous relics. The city is supplied with water by several fountains, almost all of them adorned with sculpture, and these fountains are fed by the waters of a small lake, situated about a third of a league from the walls, towards the east. That of *Steenporte*, and that of the great new street, are beautiful, but they do not enjoy the popular reputation of *Mannekenpisse*, a child in bronze, whose name expresses the indecent way in which he throws out a stream of water. This statue, which is not very ancient, has replaced one whose origin goes back to the twelfth century. It is called by the people *the oldest burgess in Brussels*, and on feast days they dress it in blue. Many other edifices, which we have not even named, adorn this city; such are the palace of the States-General, the new court-house, and the king's palace, erected within these few years.

Churches.

Fountains.

The capital of Belgium, within a circumference of two leagues and a half, resembles a union of several small cities, differing in their language, their occupations, and their manners. The quarter of the Park is inhabited by the ministers of state, the noblesse, and the rich bankers; the English are fond of this quarter. In the neighbourhood of its handsome buildings resides a small colony of French, whilst towards the southern extremity of the city, a Spanish colony, escaped from the revolutionary horrors of the

Population of the different quarters of the city.

BOOK CI.

Peninsula, has fixed its abode. Towards the south-east, a population active and keen, but not numerous, is composed of Walloons, who are easy distinguishable by their physiognomy and language. The lower city is almost exclusively peopled by Flemings, attached to their own idiom and to their ancient customs. The quarter situated between the lower city and that of the Park is the centre of trade and amusements, the abode of jewellers, mercers, and of all who support themselves by the luxury of the rich, the central point of the finest warehouses. The Jews do not, as at Amsterdam, inhabit a separate quarter: the poorest concentrate in the meanest streets, and the more wealthy are scattered through the rest of the city.* The additions that are making to different parts of the city, prove that industry and trade are in a flourishing state. In effect, manufactures of all kinds are to be found in Brussels; and charitable establishments for the aged, for orphans, for strangers, for the sick and the blind, are carefully supported. The academies of sciences and belles lettres, two royal societies of literature, one of botany, an athenaeum, academies of painting and drawing, a museum, a cabinet of natural philosophy, a fine public library established in the old palace of the governors-general, a botanical garden which occupies the site of the gardens of the ancient court, and some other establishments which we pass without notice, might lead us to think more favourably of the philanthropic virtues and intellectual faculties of the inhabitants of Brussels, than of their neighbours around them, if our excursion into both Holland and Belgium had not proved to us, that the greater part of the cities in the Low Countries enjoy nearly the same advantages, in both these points of view. Among the men of eminence, to whom Brussels has given birth, the two Champagnes, painters of eminence, and Bochius, known by his Latin verses, ought to be placed in the first rank. Lipsius, a celebrated critic of the 16th century, was born near Brussels, and died in the neighbouring city of Louvain in 1600.

Scientific and benevolent establishments.

Promenades.

The inhabitants of this city, more active than those of Amsterdam, love to enjoy their fine walks. They have

* See a work intituled, *Quatre Mois dans les Pays-Bas.* Paris, 1829.

a *Tivoli*, which only resembles in name that of the same name in Paris. It is not so large, but is much more pleasant, and greatly more varied in the amusements to be found in it. On the banks of a canal which communicates by the Rupel with the Scheld, the *green walk* is a charming promenade composed of three avenues of nearly half a league in length, of which the one in the centre is reserved for carriages and equestrians. Frequented every day, it assumes on Sunday the brilliant appearance of the *Longchamps* at Paris. The beautiful walks at Brussels extend to the Bridge of Laeken, not far from the village of that name, where the rich Brusselers (Bruxellois) have their country houses, and where the king of the United Netherlands possessed a park and magnificent palace, the place of his residence during the fine season.

We cross the *Senne* and the canal of Brussels at *Vilvorde*, a town of 3000 souls, where Joseph II, erected a bridewell (*maison de detention*) remarkable for the beauty of its work-shops. Four leagues to the east, we perceive on another canal, the city of *Louvain* or *Leuven*, which possessed in the fourteenth century 4000 work-shops for cloths, whose 18,000 workmen, forced to expatriate themselves in consequence of a revolt against the Duke of Brabant, carried their industry to England. At present it is only celebrated for the brewing of excellent beer, of which it annually exports more than 15,000 casks. Its canal, which admits vessels of a considerable tonnage, and the river Dyle, give activity to this branch of trade. Two fine institutions still confer importance on this city: the one is a hotel for invalids which can receive 2,500 persons; the other is the university, which was founded in 1426, suppressed by the French in 1797, and re-established since 1815. The walled bounds of Louvain, too large for a population of about 16,000 souls, contain fields and gardens, and streets regular enough; but the houses are ill-built, and there are few fine edifices. It is the same at *Tirlemont*, which the Brabanters call *Théenen*. Watered by the Geete, its ramparts are more than a league and half in cicumference, and its population scarcely the half of that of Louvain.

Louvain.

Tirlemont.

BOOK CL.

We enter the province of Limburg, by the road which passing through Tirlemont, conducts to Aix-la-Chapelle. *Saint Trond*, the first town we arrive at, carries on a trade in lace and iron-work. Leaving the town of *Looz* on the left hand, whose magnificent castle is seen in passing along, we reach the banks of the *Jaar*, where *Tongres* (Flem. *Tongeren*) is resorted to on account of its ferruginous mineral waters. This city was, in the time of Caesar, a fortress of the *Tungri*,* called *Atuatuca*; it was destroyed by Attila in 451, and in 881 by the Normans; it contains scarcely 4000 inhabitants.

Tongres.

A valley stretching out before us, brings to view in the distance *Maëstricht*, and the mountain of *Saint Pierre* commanding it, and lying between the Jaar and the left bank of the Meuse. This calcareous mountain, from which for more than 15 centuries, there has been taken a soft and chalky stone, is crossed by so great a number of galleries, that there has been formed an inextricable labyrinth of about six leagues in circumference. In this mass different fossil bones have been discovered of great importance to science; among others, two heads of gigantic Lizards of a species which no longer exists on the surface of the globe, and which savans have agreed to designate under the name of *Mosasaurus*.† One of these heads is to be seen in the Museum of Haarlem, and the other in the museum of Natural History at Paris; the length of the last is three feet nine inches, which creates a presumption that this monstrous lizard was twenty-four feet in length. The mountain of Saint Pierre, was, during the middle ages, called the *Mountain of the Huns* (*mons Hunnorum*), apparently from some tradition connected with Attila's visit of destruction to this country in the fifth century, referred to above, in speaking of Tongres. It derives

Maëstricht

* It does not appear that there is such a people as the *Tungri* mentioned by Caesar. His words are, speaking of *Atuacuata*, Lib. vi, c. 30, 'Id castelli nomen est. Hoc ferè est in mediis *Eburonum* finibus.' The Eburones seem to have possessed the country about Liege. Tongres is about four leagues distant from that city.—Transl. Note.

† See historie de la montagne de Saint Pierre de Maestricht, by *Faujas de Saint Fond*. Memoire sur le plateau de Saint-Pierre, by *M. Bory de Saint Vincent*. Ann. Gen. des Sciences Phisiques, tom. i.

its modern name from the village of Saint Pierre, adjacent to, and now considered a suburb of the city of Maëstricht, or more properly from the church of Saint Pierre, which is of greater antiquity than the village. An old tower on the summit of the mountain, has preserved the name of the '*Tower of Caesar*,' and a little farther off, it is believed, there existed a Roman Camp. Let us add to these traditionary names, that the Brabançon name of Maastricht or Maëstricht, is simply the translation of the Latin words, *Trajectum ad Mosam*,* *passage of the Meuse:* Ought we not then to conclude, that the Romans possessed nothing here but an intrenched camp? There is no reason to suppose that Maëstricht existed prior to the fourth century. The ramparts, the ditches, and bastions which defend it, as well as Fort Saint Pierre, render Maëstricht one of the strongest places in the low countries. It is well built; the beauty of its town-house, of its public market, and of the church of St Gervais, are especially deserving of notice. There are manufactories here of fire-arms, pins, and cloths; and the Meuse gives activity to trade. After Maëstricht, the other towns in the province possess very little interest. Without quitting the banks of the river, we can see *Maaseyk*, containing a population of only 3000 souls, and the native place of John Van-Eyk, better known by the name of John of Bruges, who, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, invented painting in oil. A little farther off is seen, on the left hand, the small but commercial city of *Wert*, the birth-place of the famous *John de Wert*, who, from a shoemaker's boy became a soldier, rose to be a general, and, lastly, became viceroy of Bohemia, and by the capture of several places in Picardy, under the reign of Louis XIII, carried terror to the very heart of Paris, where his name served as the burden of the song to the ballad-singers of Pont-Neuf, like that of Marlborough in the reign of his successor. We cross the Meuse at *Venloo*, a city of 6000 souls, whose principal branch of trade is the manufacture of pins. In ascending the river on the right bank, there is seen, at the embouchure of the

Maaseyk.

Wert.

Venloo.

* See Diction. Abrégé. Geogr. et Histor. du Brabant Hollandais.

BOOK CL.

Roer, *Ruremonde* or *Ruermond*, the country of the celebrated geographer Mercator.

Ruremonde. Limburg. Verviers.

In continuing our journey in the same direction, we arrive near *Limburg*, the ancient capital of the dutchy of that name, a small city of 2000 souls, now comprehended in the province of Liege. *Verviers*, in the vicinity of Limburg, has been enriched by the sale of its woollen cloths which are much esteemed, and by means of which it has, in a few years, risen to a population of 16,000 souls. It lies in the midst of a rich and fertile valley, presenting an animating picture of the united results of increasing wealth and industry. We pass through this pretty town before arriving at *Spa*, a town known for its elegant works in varnished wood and its mineral waters, which, every year to the end of May, are frequented by more than 1000 strangers, brought there as much by pleasure as by the care of their health. All the trade of the country centres at *Liege*, called *Luik* in the idiom of Brabant. Liege lies on the banks of the Meuse. Gloomy and dirty, it is yet the entrepot of the Merchandise of the Low Countries, France, and Germany. The working of coal pits, forges, the cannon foundries, the manufacture of fire-arms, and various other kinds of industry, occupy the inhabitants. Ten suburbs, seventeen bridges, twelve public squares, an arsenal, an exchange, a chamber of commerce, a university founded in 1817, schools and learned societies, attest the wealth and importance of Liege. Its fortifications had ceased to be kept in repair by the French government; but a vast citadel, has been erected, within these few years, on the site of the old one, and Liege now ranks in the second class of fortified towns. Its public edifices possess little deserving notice, if we except its massy cathedral, and new theatre constructed upon the model of the Odeon at Paris. Liege has given birth to several celebrated men, whose memory must be dear to her, if we may judge from the price which she appeared to put upon the possessing the heart of our inimitable Gretry.

Spa.

Liege.

Dutchy of Luxemburg.

At the time we are writing, there seems a strong probability that the province we are next to speak of, the farthest south of the kingdom of the Netherlands, will be separated

from the Belgian States, on the ground, it appears, of its not having formed part of Belgium, but a constituent part of the Germanic empire. Whatever there may be in this, and whatever may be the destination of *Luxemburg*, the province in question, it is necessary to describe it here, Germany having been already described, and our continental labours closing with the following book.

The superfices of the grand dutchy of Luxemburg, about 230 square leagues, is peopled by 292,000 inhabitants, which makes the population equal to 1269 individuals for each square league. If we except the capital, this territory contains no city of importance. At the foot of the mountains which separate the Ourthe from the Lesse, we perceive *Saint Hubert*, a small city, where are preserved the remains of the patron of sportsmen, whose chapel is frequently visited by such of the peasantry as wish to place their persons and their flocks under his protection. The position of *Bouillon*, in a narrow defile through which the Semoy takes a winding course, gives it a melancholy but yet romantic aspect. The old castle, which commands this old capital of the dutchy, would prove no defence against a powerful enemy, because it is itself commanded by the surrounding mountains. In the midst of forests, upon one of the hills where the Semoy has its origin, we see the small city of *Arlon*, which carries on a trade in iron and grain, — an ancient city, mentioned under the name of *Orolaunum* in the Itinerary of Antoninus. Frequently, when its soil is turned up, are antiquities found. Twice in 1793 and 1794, did the French, in this place, put the Austrians to flight.

Saint-Hubert.

Bouillon.

Arlon.

Advancing towards the east, and on the banks of the small river Alzette, stands the important fortress of *Luxemburg*, which, for twenty years, was the capital of the French departments of '*Des Forets*.' The lower city is watered by the river, which divides it into two parts. It may be considered as properly the suburbs of the place: a road sinuous and cut in the rock conducts to the summit of the rock on which stands the upper city; it is so steep that carriages cannot ascend it without difficulty. Large fosses, eighty feet in depth, would be enough for the defence of the city, and yet,

Luxemburg.

besides these, a double row of exterior works defend the approach to it. It is then no exaggeration to say that Luxemburg is one of the strongest places in Europe: in a military point of view, it has been viewed as more than merely a part of the kingdom of the Netherlands, — the nomination of the governor being subject to the approbation of the Germanic Confederation. The strength of Luxemburg alone constitutes its importance; it would be a matter of difficulty to mention, among its edifices, one single building worthy of the rank which this city occupies.

BOOK CLI.

EUROPE.

Description of Europe Continued.—Holland, or the Seven United Provinces.

BOOK CLI.

Glance at the History of Holland.

THE early history of Holland is the same with that of Belgium,* down to the war of Independence and Existence, as it may also be called, with Spain. In Holland, a spirit of inquiry had kept alive the ancient love of independence and liberty, in preserving from the attempts of Charles V, himself, a system of national representation which placed the principal strength of government in the Assembly of the States; and when the tyranny of his son thought it had found in the doctrines of a blind fanaticism, a solid support against the ideas of civil and religious liberty that were becoming predominant in the age, his yoke only became the more insupportable to a people possessing courage enough to be free, and sufficiently enlightened to comprehend the advantages of religious toleration. The Hollanders, by seventy years of resistance, conquered their independence, and founded a republic equally formidable and industrious. The treaty of Munster in 1648 drew from the reluctant Spaniards an entire recognition of the Independence of the Seven United Provinces, while the Belgic provinces, divided among themselves, and not possessed of that love of freedom, which led their more northern neighbours to overcome every obstacle, remained submissive to Spain and to the Roman Catholic Church. Conquered by the French in

* See Book CL.

BOOK CLI.

1795, it was allowed to retain a nominal independence, till Napoleon, in 1810, made it an integral part of his empire. The losses of Napoleon in the campaigns of 1812 and 1813, led to the emancipation of Holland at the close of the last mentioned year; and this was followed by the ill-assorted union of Belgium and Holland in the Nassau family, under the name of the kingdom of the Netherlands, — a union which very recent events in Belgium have broken up and dissolved.

Government.

The government of the Seven United Provinces, previous to their conquest by the French in 1795, is now a matter of past history, a tale that is told. Yet it may be right to refer to it, and a very few words will suffice. It was a confederation of seven independent republics, which were united by the bonds of similarity of manners and pursuits, and especially by the remembrance of the long-protracted and bloody struggle, which they had maintained together for liberty and life against the whole power of the Spanish monarchy, and in which, as already noticed, they at last succeeded. The States-General and Senate were composed of deputies from the seven provinces, whose business it was to take charge of all matters, involving the interests of the whole, such as war, peace, the laying on of taxes, &c, but in all matters of importance no steps could be taken by these bodies, without a reference to the States of the Provinces, and these again required to consult their constituents in the cities and country. The Stadtholder's office was merely executive, and even that was much limited, though his rank and influence were often productive of inroads upon the constitution of the States, and induced jealousies that proved the means more than once of abolishing the office.

Of the government established in 1814, after the expulsion of the French and union of the Dutch provinces with Belgium, we have already spoken in our account of the Belgian provinces, and to that we beg to refer the reader. It is presumed, that so far as Holland is concerned, the same form of government will subsist, without being at all affected by the defection and separation of Belgium.

Ancient Physical State.

The most ancient accounts of Holland represent it as one extended swamp, alternately covered and relinquished by

the advancing and retiring waters of the ocean: and yet it appears from the Roman natural historian,* that miserable, and to all appearance uninhabitable, as a country like this was, it was not destitute of inhabitants, who, subsisting on the produce of the sea, endeavoured to find habitations on every bit of land not taken possession of by the waves. It has been a question among enquirers into matters of this kind, — at what time the inhabitants began the erection of dikes to preserve themselves from the inundations of the sea; and there is strong ground to believe that, so early as the first or second century of the Christian era, this great work was commenced, and since that time there has been a contention between the inhabitants and the ocean, which has ended however in the country being brought to its present state of high improvement and cultivation, and comparative safety from the attacks of its powerful assailer. A great part of Holland, it is calculated, is between twenty and forty feet below high water mark on the surrounding coast; but the inhabitants seem to have no fear of their safety. At different times, however, the ocean has burst the barriers raised to control his waters, and, on such occasions, the effects have been disastrous in the extreme. As we proceed, we shall have occasion to notice some of the most remarkable of these inundations.

Mountains.

In Holland, it may be said, there are no mountains: we see nothing but plains, interrupted occasionally by rising grounds, not even deserving the name of hills, and much smaller than those that are to be found in Belgium.

Rivers.

We must refer to our account of Belgium for an account of the principal rivers of Holland, there being few that deserve the name but those already noticed there, the *Rhine*, the *Waal*, the *Meuse*, and the *Scheld*. To these may be added, the *Yssel*, which proceeding, by an artificial cut, from the Rhine above Arnheim, takes a north-east direction to Döesberg, where it is joined by the *Old Yssel*, the proper channel of the stream, flowing from Westphalia. It then passes by Zutphen and Deventer, and after receiving a number of smaller tributary streams, falls into the east side of

* Plin. Hist. Nat. Lib. 16.

BOOK CLI.

the Zuyderzee, below Campen. The *Wecht* or *Vecht* is a river of less importance than the Yssel, which takes its rise in Westphalia, and, after uniting with several other streams, falls into the Zuyderzee not far from the mouth of the Yssel. The *Hunse* is a small river which, passing by the fine city of Groningen, takes its course to the German Ocean.

Lakes.

There are many lakes in Holland, especially in Friesland; but the only one deserving particular mention is that which is called the *Sea of Haerlem*, in the province of Holland. It communicates by the gulf of Y with the Zuyderzee, is in length five leagues, by two and a half in breadth, and is everywhere navigable. Its navigation, however, is impeded by the violent squalls and storms it is subject to. In one of these did the unfortunate Frederic, Elector Palatine and king of Bohemia, when an exile in Holland, lose his eldest son and save his own life with difficulty, by the upsetting the boat in which they were crossing the lake during a dark night. A neck of land about two leagues broad, separates it from the North Sea. This lake was formed three centuries and a half ago by an inundation of the ocean. The Jews of Amsterdam have offered to drain it, under the condition of the property of the land being made over to them, but other interests have stood in the way of the execution of this project, which would transform an extent of water of more than 20,000 acres into fertile meadow ground. Among the lakes which have undergone this useful metamorphosis, chiefly in North Holland, the most important is the *Sea of Naarden*. The *Bies-Bosch*, on the frontiers of North Brabant, is a lake of about twelve square leagues, which arose out of an event more disastrous than that which formed the Sea of Haerlem. It was produced on the nineteenth November 1421 by the rupture of several dikes, in consequence of which seventy-two villages and a population of about 100,000 souls were submerged! Into this lake, several arms of the Meuse throw themselves; at issuing from it, they form but one broad stream under the name of *Hollands-Diep*. Among the numerous marshes of this country, the *Bourtang*, in the provinces of Groningen and Drenthe, covers a considerable extent of land.

Marshes.

Gulfs or bays.

Of all the gulfs which border the coast, and serve as embouchures to the principal rivers, the two most important are the *Dollart*, between the province of Groningen and kingdom of Hanover, and the *Zuyderzee*, between Holland and Friesland. The first, which receives the waters of the Ems, is three leagues in breadth, and from seven to eight in length. It is the result of a dreadful inundation of the Ocean which, in 1277, swallowed up several villages. The second, into which the Reest, the Yssel, and several other rivers throw themselves, was formed in 1225 by an irruption of the Ocean, which covered thirty leagues of country: its name signifies *Sea of the South*, because it is to the south of the Ocean.

Canals.

The original state of Holland, as almost one extended swamp, has already been noticed. In connexion with the building of dikes to preserve it from the inroads and attacks of the Ocean, the importance of draining the land by means of canals and ditches, would naturally occur to the inhabitants, and to such an extent has this been carried, that the whole country is covered with them. They are indeed innumerable, and most useful for travelling and facilitating internal trade; and being lined with rows of trees, tend to adorn the face of this flat and naturally uninteresting country. So flat is it, that to those approaching by sea, the spires and trees appear to rise out of the water.

Islands.

The Dutch islands form two distinct groups. The southern group comprehends the largest, washed by the different arms of the Scheld, the Meuse and the Rhine; these are *Walcheren*, *North and South Beveland*, *Tholen*, *Schouwen*, *Over-Flakee*, *Voom*, and *Beyerland*. The northern is composed of the islands of *Wieringen*, *Texel*, *Vlieland*, *Ter-Schelling*, and *Ameland*, all lying at the entrance of the Zuyderzee and on the coasts of Friesland.

Geology.

For the Geology of Holland, the reader is referred to the remarks on the geology of Belgium,* which, from the similarity of the two countries, are intended to embrace both.

* Book CL.

BOOK CLI.

Climate and cultivation.

The Dutch provinces, conquests of Man over the Ocean, derive their fogs and humidity from the mists of the sea, and exhalations of the marshes. During winter, which reigns four months of the year, covering the ground with hoar-frost and ice, the east wind, which blows frequently at this season, dissipates the miasmata of an insalubrious atmosphere. The industry of the cultivator multiplies cattle and pasturage grounds. Although this country does not present the agreeable variety of an irregular soil, yet the fine season adorns it with its charms: vast meadows, dazzling with the richest verdure, are during eight months of the year covered with cattle, whose plumpness announces an abundant and healthy nourishment; and the number of these domestic animals attest no less the wealth of their owners, than elsewhere the cultivated fields indicate the intelligence and patient attention of a laborious population. Wheat, flax, and madder, in the north, — and in the south, tobacco, and different kinds of fruit-trees, cover the best lands. It is among the Hollanders that horticulture has made the greatest progress, where the culture of a thousand ornamental plants, and especially hyacinths and tulips, has been carried to such a length, that the price of a flower often exceeds what would support twenty families for a year.

The population of Holland, viewed in a religious aspect, is divided into a great number of religions, of communions and sects. No religion is there considered as being that of the state; all enjoy the same rights and equal liberty. The Reformed communion is, however, the most numerous; the Christians of the confession of Augsburg occupy the next rank; Mennonites, other sects, and Jews, much less numerous than the two first mentioned, are scattered over all the provinces.

Idioms.

In regard to the language, with the exception of the Jews, the origin of the different dialects that are spoken may be traced to the *German*. The different dialects spoken in Friesland and the islands of the Zuyderzee, in the province of Holland, in Gueldres, in Zeeland, and in Dutch Brabant, are all of this description. The Jews, who came originally from Portugal, have preserved the

idiom which was familiar to them when they established themselves in the Low Countries.

Ancient inhabitants.

The most ancient inhabitants of the country were the *Frisii*, ancestors of the Frieslanders, who occupied from south to north the country comprehended between the Rhine and the ocean. Their Latin name (Frisii,) probably comes from an old word in the German language, *frissen*, which signifies to grub up, to dig or drain marshes. They were one of the most powerful nations of Western Germany. Brave, jealous of their liberty, they were long the devoted auxiliaries of the Romans; their independence was never disputed; we see them, after the death of Drusus, choosing chiefs or dukes from amongst themselves. The *Batavi* were, it is believed, a colony of the *Catti*, a German tribe: forced by a series of intestine dissensions to quit their own country, they planted themselves in the sandy and marshy country, circumscribed by the Rhine and the Meuse: their neighbours called them, for this reason, *Wattawer*,* an appellation which the Romans changed into *Batavi*. When Cæsar under took the conquest of the Gauls, they were already powerful, and masters of part of the country to the south of the lower Meuse. Their cavalry was formidable: their horses were trained to swim across rivers without breaking their ranks. At the battle of Pharsalia, they decided the victory in favour of Cæsar. Their bravery and loyalty gave them the privileged title of friends and brothers of the Romans, and the honour of forming the pretorian guard. In all important expeditions, in every dangerous enterprise, the Batavians were selected. They composed the forlorn hope of the Roman army, sustained the first shock of the enemy's attack, and made the first attack with a boldness and impetuosity peculiar to themselves. Tacitus says, that no tribute was imposed upon them: they remained faithful to the empire till its fall. Their territory was comprehended in *Germania Secunda*.

Territorial divisions.

From these generalities, which it would be unprofitable to extend farther, let us pass on to the important cities of the different Dutch provinces. When these provinces rose up

* In Dutch and low German, *Watt* still signifies *sand bank*; *awe* or *ave*, *low land*, *meadow*.

BOOK CLI.

against the tyranny of Philip II, and bound themselves by the treaty of Utrecht in 1579, they were seven in number: the lordships of Groningen, Friesland, Over-Yssel, and Utrecht, the dutchy of Gueldres, and the counties of Holland and Zeeland, and to these may be added, the territory of Drenthe. Dutch Brabant and East Flanders, having been in their possession when peace was made with Spain, were given up to them. Thus matters continued till the invasion and conquest of Holland by the French republic in 1795. In 1798, having been called upon by the republican government of France to adopt some new organization, they took the name of the *Batavian republic*. Their political division changed; they were divided into eight departments.* This division lasted only eighteen months, when that which recalled the good days of Dutch independence was again resorted to, and continued till the time when Napoleon imposed a sovereign in the person of his brother, upon the descendants of those republicans who had cemented their independence by the blood of the Spanish phalanxes. Their country was then divided into eleven departments.† United the 9th July 1810, to the French empire, Holland formed seven departments;‡ but since its erection, after the downfall of Napoleon, into an independent state, the original division has again prevailed.

Cities — Groningen.

Groningen, the capital of the province of that name, is the most important city in the north of this kingdom. Watered by the small river Hunse, situated at the junction of three great canals, which give it a communication with several mercantile cities; possessing a port which, although five leagues from the mouth of the Ems, receives the largest merchant vessels, it is not astonishing that this flourishing city has a good university, schools, fine collections, and scientific societies. It is the birth-place of several distinguished savans, among others, Rudolph Agricola, the first introducer of the Greek language into Germany, Albert

* Known by the names of Delft, Dommel, Amstel, Ems, Scheld and Meuse, Rhine, Texel, and old Yssel, names of the principal rivers which traversed them.

† Amstelland, Brabant, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gueldres, Maasland, Friesland, East Friesland, Over-Yssel, Drenthe, and Groningen.

‡ Those of Eastern Ems, Western Ems, Friesland, Mouths of the Yssel, Upper Yssel, Zuyderzee, and Mouths of the Meuse.

Schultens, the orientalist, and Muntinck, who founded the botanical garden so much admired. Its finest edifices are the Gothic church of Saint-Martin, the spire of which is 330 feet high, and the town-house, built in 1793, upon a spot which passes for one of the finest in Holland. One of the bridges, called Botering-Hoog, is regarded as a chef-d'œuvre. These buildings, and many others which might be mentioned, with the cleanliness and regularity of its streets, rank Groningen among the finest cities in Holland. It formerly was a member of the Hanseatic league. It is pretended, upon some very uncertain evidence, that it is built around the Roman fortress called by Tacitus *Corbulonis monumentum;* yet the first time it is mentioned in history is in the ninth century, and it was not till the fourteenth that they raised the fortifications which have been kept up with much care ever since.

Leeuwarden.

Leeuwarden in the province of Friesland, communicates with Groningen, and with Dockum, Sneek, and other towns, by means of canals, and thus carries on an active trade. This pretty town is surrounded by a fosse and an earthen rampart: one of its twelve churches contains the tombs of the princes of Orange; their palace is one of its principal edifices. Upon the site of a hamlet swallowed up by the sea in 1134, stands *Harlingen*, important on account of its fortifications, and also a place of very considerable trade: near the harbour may be seen a monument erected in honour of Gaspard Robles, who, by repairing at his own expense the dikes of the province, merited the gratitude of his fellow-citizens.

Harlingen.

Assen.

Assen, the capital of the province of Drenthe, is a handsome small town, which, by a canal, communicates with *Meppel*, a town of 4000 souls, and with the Zuyderzee. There have been discovered in the environs, tombs of the ancient Germans. *Koevorden*, built in the form of a pentagon, is surrounded by fortifications which are by some regarded as the chef-d'œuvre of Coehorn; it is besides environed by a marsh, which renders it difficult of access.

Koevorden

Zwool.

The province of Over Yssel contains several cities of importance: in *Zwool*, the capital, the church of Saint-Michael is remarkable for its fine organ and the sculpture

BOOK CLI.

upon its pulpit; *Campen*, upon the left bank of the Yssel, at a short distance from its falling into the Zuyderzee, is surrounded by walls and fosses; the sand-banks which obstruct the harbour menace with total destruction its trade, which has been long on the decline. *Deventer*, which boasts its hard ware, beer and gingerbread, possesses some fine buildings; it is the native place of the philosopher Gronovius.

Campen.

Deventer.

Gueldres or *Guelderland*, which has preserved the name of a city ceded to Prussia, more than a century ago, was formerly inhabited by the *Sicambri*, a people from Germany. The first city we come to, following the course of the Yssel, is *Zutphen*, defended by some fortifications. English readers will connect with Zutphen, the renowned and gallant Sir Philip Sydney, who was killed at the siege of this town, then in the hands of the Spaniards, in 1586. Upon the bank of one of the arms of the Rhine, stands *Arnheim*, not less strong, the seat of the government of the province. It was fortified by the celebrated Coehorn. Its ramparts are planted with beautiful elms, and form an agreeable promenade. It possesses a good harbour; its streets are straight; the principal church contains the tombs of the ancient Dukes and Counts of Gueldres. Some leagues to the south of this capital, lies the much more considerable city of *Nimeguen*, anciently called *Noviomagus*, which, during the middle ages, was changed to *Numaga*. Nimeguen is built on a steep rising ground, reaching down to the edge of the Waal, and the steepness is so great, that some of the streets are scarcely passable for wheel carriages. Most of the streets are narrow and dark; but some of them are of a tolerable breadth and well formed. The principal church is a handsome structure, and the town-house, a very old building, is also worthy of notice. From the top of an ancient tower, called the Belvidere, there is a most extensive view.' 'All Holland,' says a traveller, describing it, 'seemed to lie like a map before me, presenting a flat of such extent, that the eye is almost wearied with wandering over the boundless space, and which is so intersected in every direction with rivers, canals, and swamps, that the whole country looks as if but

Zutphen.

Arnheim.

Nimeguen.

yet half recovered from the mighty universal flood. From Arnheim in the north, to Gueldres in the south, and from Utrecht in the west, to the forests of Guelderland, and even of Westphalia in the east, the whole country here lies open to the view; and at a fearful depth below, is traced the broad majestic Rhine (Waal) sweeping onward in its full and steady course through this wide favouring land, to where the horizon, sinking into earth and water, terminates the scene.' Nimeguen is celebrated for two treaties of peace: the first, concluded in 1678, between Spain, France, and Holland; and the second, the following year, between the Germanic empire and Sweden.

Utrecht.

One of the arms of the Rhine flows through *Utrecht*, a a city of much more importance than all we have yet mentioned. The name of *Trajectum*, by which it is designed in the Itinerary of Antoninus, announces it to be one of the fifty fortresses which Drusus caused to be erected amongst the *Batavi*, to maintain possession of the course of the principal rivers. This rising city was several times destroyed by the Barbarians during the reign of Valentinian: Ulpius Trajan rebuilt it, which procured for it the name of *Trajectum Ulpii*. Utrecht stands, what does not often occur in Holland, on a rising ground, and lying on the banks of the Rhine, and in the midst of a country, every part of it cultivated like a garden, the situation is pleasing, and the appearance of the city agreeable. As usual, a number of canals run through it, and the public mall or promenade through numerous avenues of fine trees is highly ornamental. Its cathedral was destroyed by a violent storm in the latter part of the seventeenth century, and is now in ruins. The tower of the cathedral is very lofty, and from the top, it is said that fifty or sixty walled cities and towns may be seen. There repose in this cathedral the ashes of several emperors. The edifices in Utrecht possess a character of antiquity, which inspires respect: in examining them, the remembrance of the act of union of 1579, which proclaimed the independence of the republic of the seven United Provinces, and that of the peace which was signed in 1713, present themselves to the mind. We are reminded that in this city, the cradle of pope Adrian VI, the preceptor of

BOOK CLI.

Charles V, was formed that mighty maritime power, which struggled against England, which was humbled by Louis XIV, but which made that great king to tremble. Its university, its scientific collections, and its societies of arts, of sciences, and for benevolent and useful purposes, are worthy of the rank which Utrecht holds in the annals of Holland. Burman, the editor of the classics, was a native of Utrecht. The learned Graevius, who resided and died here, was a native of Saxony. It has given name to a kind of velvet which is still manufactured here. The road from Utrecht to Amsterdam is considered as passing through the most beautiful and picturesque part of Holland. The whole line is over a flat but fertile country, along the banks of the great canal, which is ornamented on both sides with nearly one continued range of country seats, belonging to the wealthy merchants. The extremely rich appearance of this part of the country, the noble breadth of the canal, ornamented with trees, and the quick succession of villas passing before the eye, render the scene very interesting, possessing indeed nothing of the sublime, but much quiet rural beauty. *Amersfoord* is the second city of the province of Utrecht; it is large and well fortified; it prides itself in having given birth to the celebrated Olden Barnevelt, the victim of the ambition and despotism of Maurice of Nassau.

Amersfoord.

Islands of the Zuyderzee.

From the extremity of the Zuyderzee to the island of *Schiermonnik Oog*, the smallest and most northerly of the islands which border the entrance of this great gulf, the passage is forty leagues, and the navigation very dangerous, because it is necessary to pass between a great number of sand-banks. The island just named, as well as that of *Ameland*, where there are 3000 inhabitants, and that of *Ter-Schelling*, much larger, but with nearly the same population, are dependant upon the province of Friesland. To the south-west of these, *Vlieland*, surrounded by sand-banks; the important island of *Texel*; and *Wieringen*, covered with meadows and cultivated fields, and possessing a population of 12000 souls, belong to *North Holland*. The Texel is celebrated for several naval engagements which were fought near its coasts, and especially for one in 1653, where the celebrated Van Tromp lost his life. To the south of the

Texel.

Texel, opposite the village of *Camperdown*, in North Holland, was fought on the 11th October 1797, an engagement between the British fleet under the command of Admiral (afterwards Viscount) Duncan, and the Dutch commanded by De Winter, each fleet sixteen sail of the line in number, besides frigates. The Dutch were defeated with the loss of ten ships of the line and two frigates captured, with their admiral and vice-admiral. The isle of the Texel produces a considerable quantity of tobacco; its meadows are covered with cattle and sheep, principally the latter, whose milk is employed in making excellent cheese of a greenish colour, for which it is indebted, it is said, to the dung of the animals. The population amounts to 4400: on its southern coast it has a commodious road-stead, where ships assemble to wait for the north-east wind, which is necessary to take them through the dangerous current of *Mars-Diep*, and carry them to Amsterdam.

The northern extremity of North Holland, which stretches to a point opposite the island of Texel, is a dry and sandy country, which bears the marks of a recent recovery from the sea, and which the Hollanders call their Siberia. The waves, at the entrance into the Zuyderzee, wash the neat town of Helder, where the British forces under the late Duke of York disembarked in 1799, and where, after a fruitless attempt to raise the Dutch, they were compelled to re-embark, after a campaign of a few weeks duration; and near to it is *Williams Ord*, a maritime establishment, founded by Napoleon, and now under the protection of the reigning sovereign, whose name it bears. This establishment enjoys a little palace, whose park, planted with stunted trees, yet resembles a small oasis in the midst of an arid steppe. On the coast of the Zuyderzee, *Medinblick*, a small city of 2000 souls, with a harbour, is during severe tempests threatened with complete submersion: it is looked upon as the oldest city in North Holland, and was the residence of the ancient kings of Friesland. *Horn*, at the bottom of a bay, is the native place of William Schouten, who discovered, in 1616, the American cape, to which he gave the name of his native city. It is tolerably well built; its harbour is good; and its environs are embellished by gar-

Williams-Ord.

Medinblick

Horn.

BOOK CLI.

dens and country houses. In 1557 the waters of the Zuyderzee burst their dikes, and threatened to swallow it up. *Enckhuysen* is another sea-port in the Zuyderzee, surrounded towards the land by gardens; it was the birth-place of the excellent Witsius, professor of theology at Utrecht and afterwards at Leyden. *Alkmaar* lies away from the sea, and is so environed by gardens, orchards, canals, avenues, and meadows, that it may be pronounced one of the most highly-cultivated spots to be found anywhere. Thus far did the united British and Russian army, under the Duke of York, advance in the ill-advised invasion of Holland in 1799, already referred to. At the embouchure of the *Zaan*, in the long gulf of Y, *Zaandam* or *Saardam*, a considerable city, divided into two parts, is celebrated for the residence of Peter of Russia, in the quality of a simple carpenter. The wooden hut which he inhabited is visited by travellers as a curiosity. What appears, to travellers at least, a great curiosity, is the vast number of windmills (said to be from two to three thousand) about the place, used for various purposes, but chiefly for the sawing of timber. Zaandam has considerable timber yards; and carries on a great trade in wood for building, and in paper. There is not in Europe a city of 10,000 inhabitants, whose population is equally opulent.

Alkmaar.

Saardam.

Before proceeding to Amsterdam, it would be unjustifiable, in a work like this, to pass without notice the town or village of Broek or Brock in North Holland, the admiration of all visiters, where Dutch cleanliness and nicety seem to be carried to the very acmé of perfection, indeed probably without a parallel all the world over. No carriages of any description are allowed to pass through the streets, one only excepted, which is considered as polluted, and is but thinly inhabited. The streets, with the above exception, are clean beyond all comparison; not a dog or cat is to be seen in them at liberty; and there is a regulation by which no person is allowed to smoke within doors or without, without a guard over the ball of the pipe to prevent the ashes from falling out! Notice to this effect is posted up at the entrances into the village. The pavement of the street is inlay or mosaic work, formed of pebbles of every shape

Broek.

and colour, shells, pieces of glazed brick, &c, &c. The houses are painted, every part of them, within and without, with the most costly colours, and their whole appearance bespeaks the most minute attention to neatness; the windows are without a speck, every thing has an air of freshness, and a stranger looks in vain for a grain of dirt, or even a particle of dust. The houses are roofed with tiles so glossy, that in the sunshine they glitter like spar. Small gardens extend from one end of a street to the other, all ornamented in the way most suitable to the owner's taste, and not a blade of grass or withered leaf is allowed to rest on the ground. The town is built partly round the banks of a small circular lake, and from this lake are carried through most of the streets small streams in a channel lined with brick on both sides. The numerous bridges required over these small canals afford opportunity for exhibiting the taste of the inhabitants in fanciful devices, and in the inter mixture of bright colours. The houses have each two entrances, the one of which, generally painted black, is never opened but in the case of death occurring in the family. The internal cleanliness of the houses corresponds in every part with the external, and the people are equally cleanly in their persons, dress, and habits. Let not strangers laugh at all this particularity. It may be in this instance carried to a fanciful excess, but how conducive would an assimilation to the spirit of the people of Broek be to the health and comfort of mankind?

From the northern bank of the gulf Y, the passage is only one-half league to the entrance of the port of *Amsterdam*. Vast pasture-grounds, strewed with villages and scattered houses, surround the capital of Holland; and when we add to this the tranquil course of the Amstel, a little river which passes through the city, and whose banks are bordered, during the fine season, with flowery meadows and trees covered with a beautiful foliage, — the tout ensemble presents a rich and brilliant picture to the eye of the delighted spectator. 'I know no city,' says a recent tourist, 'the distant view of which is so striking as that of Amsterdam. The eye travels over one vast flat meadow of the richest herbage, and, at the extremity of this, the view is

Amsterdam

BOOK CLI.

bounded by a thick crowd of towers, cupolas, and spires. On a nearer approach, so level is the wide expanse around, that the eye seems to embrace at once the whole of this magnificent city, and crowds of masts are seen mingling with the houses. It is a sight truly imposing, and worthy of a great commercial nation.'* The city, surrounded by fosses and ramparts converted into fortifications (*boulevards*), has no occasion to dread the approach of an enemy, as by means of sluices the whole surrounding country can be inundated. A multitude of canals, the greater part of them bordered by rows of trees, run through the city, forming ninety islands, which communicate with each other by means of 280 bridges, of which that over the Amstel is the finest; it is 660 feet in length, 70 in breadth, and is composed of 35 arches. The brackish and muddy water of these canals, although frequently put in motion by the opening and shutting of the sluices, yet spreads through this vast city dangerous miasmata, which, joined to the humidity of the atmosphere and ground, render it an unhealthy place of abode. One great inconvenience is the want of good water; that of the Amstel is bad; they make use of the water of the small river Vecht, some leagues from the city: but the best is that which is brought from Utrecht at a great expense. The streets, almost all of them in straight lines on the banks of the canals, are well paved, furnished with foot-paths, and carefully lighted during the night; the two finest called the *Heeren-Gragt* and the *Keisers-Gragt*, are magnificent, and are more than a half league in length. Nothing can equal their splendour; but it is not, as in Italy, palaces that are the ornament of these streets; the houses, all built of brick and painted with different colours, are tastefully fitted up with the most splendid furniture, and the profusion of warehouses and shops, garnished with all the productions of the two worlds, announce the wealth of a city which long possessed the commerce of the universe. The *Kalver-Straat* and the *Nievedek* especially resemble an exhibition gallery, in the open air, of all the treasures of industry.

Streets.

* Tour in the Netherlands, &c, by C. Tennant, Esq.

Public Buildings.

Fine public edifices still display the commercial riches of Amsterdam; in the square of Dam, the most magnificent building is the royal palace, formerly the Stadt-house. The only fault found with this building is in its proportions, which are not in harmony one with another; thus, its height, which is 116 feet, not comprehending a tower of 41, is too much for its length which is 282, and for its depth which is 222 feet. It is built upon 13,659 piles. The interior attests the splendour of the capital, at the time when a building so sumptuous was erected for its magistrates: no decorations have been spared: marbles, statues, and pictures abound even to profusion. The royal hall is one of the largest in Europe: in length it is 120 feet, in breadth 56, and 98 in height; it is crossed by a meridian line traced by the celebrated Huygens; the marbles with which the floor, the walls, and the ceiling, are covered, the pillars which support this, the standards taken from the Spaniards, decorate it with a magnificence which nothing could replace. The royal apartments are still in the state in which Louis Bonaparte ornamented and furnished them. The Exchange, built over a large bridge which conceals the course of the Amstel, is an edifice in the Gothic taste, 250 feet long by 140 in breadth: its principal front is ornamented with a Mercury of a collossal size. The temples and churches of Amsterdam are forty-nine in number.* That of Saint Nicholas, called also *Ouder-Kerk* or the old church, is a fine building, whose roof is supported by forty-two stone pillars, over which arises a tower of 240 feet in height, possessing a set of music-bells composed of thirty-six bells. That of Saint Catharine, or the New Church, *Nieuwe-Kerk*, is one of the finest in the kingdom, and contains the tomb of the celebrated admiral, De Ruyter. In the fine street called *Heeren-Gragt*, meets the society *Felix Meritis*, which, from its embracing the sciences, literature, and commerce, is one of the most important and most popular of this capital. It was established within the last fifty years, and is divided into five classes.

* Viz, 11 for the Reformed religion, 2 French, 1 English, 1 Scots, 2 for the Confession of Auxsburg, 1 Armenian, 3 Baptist, 24 Roman Catholic, 1 Quaker, and 3 Jewish Synagogues.

BOOK CLI.

The first is directed to agriculture, commerce, and manufactures; the second to mathematics and natural philosophy; the third to painting, sculpture, and architecture; the fourth to music; and the fifth to general literature. Each class has its separate museum, library, and hall of assembly, and the rules of each department are as liberal as the objects are enlarged. The building where this society holds its sittings is neat and commodious, and may be regarded an ornament to the city. The finest gate of the city is that of Haarlem. There are in Amsterdam three theatres and a considerable number of hospitals and almshouses, six of which are for orphans alone, and an equal number are houses of correction and hard labour. These establishments, much better attended to than in most countries of Europe, are an inevitable scourge in a city, the rendezvous of a crowd of strangers, who spend there gold there, and corrupt the lower classes. We must see the vast East India House, the buildings of the Admiralty, which, of themselves, resemble a city, the docks for ship-building, and the majestic extent of the harbour, in order to judge of what was the former activity of Amsterdam, by the stir which still prevails. There annually enter the harbour 3000 vessels, but its trade with the two worlds is not the only support of its population. There are manufactures here of a great variety of stuffs, besides chemical products, tobacco, hardware and jewellery; from the juniper a great quantity of Geneva is distilled: and the art of the lapidary is carried to the highest degree of perfection. This great capital was in the twelfth century founded at the foot of a castle on the banks of the Amstel, from whence it obtained its name. Towards the middle of the fourteenth century it received the title of a city; in 1482, it was surrounded by walls; but it was not till 1578, when it declared its adherence to the pacification of Ghent, that it acquired importance; a century later it had drawn within its walls the whole trade of which Antwerp had been so long in possession. At the commencement of the sixteenth century it contained only 2500 houses: at present the number exceeds 27,000. If we are to believe a well informed geo-

Commerce and Industry.

grapher,* the maintaining the bridges, the canals, and the dikes of this city, and those which are within her bills of mortality, cost thirty million francs per day! What treasures must Holland be possessed of to retain the billows of the ocean within the artificial barriers opposed to them! We conclude our account of this great city, by noticing the canal formed some years ago to the Texel, by which the dangerous navigation of the Zuyderzee is avoided, and not only merchant ships, but ships of war sail direct from the Texel to the port of Amsterdam.

Haarlem.

A canal, four leagues in length, conducts from Amsterdam to *Haarlem*, an important city, surrounded by fossés and ramparts flanked with towers, which recall to remembrance the horrors of the too famous siege which this city sustained in 1573 against the Spaniards, commanded by the Duke of Alva. After a series of bloody reprisals (head for head) on the part of the besiegers and besieged, and a resistance of six months, the duke forced the place to capitulate, promised an amnesty, and perjured himself, by putting to death, within three days from the surrender, in cold blood, and accompanied by the most frightful punishments, the magistrates of the city, the reformed ministers, 2000 citizens, and the remains of the garrison! The buildings of this city are handsome; the streets are not broad, but supplied with foot-paths, lined with balustrades, and crossed by canals planted with trees; they present an ensemble so much the more agreeable, as the greater part of the houses are decorated with marble, with dazzling sheets of brass, and with paintings. The finest of its buildings is the town-house. The church of Saint-Bavon is celebrated for its magnificent organ, composed of 8000 pipes, the harmony of which surpasses the highest melody we can conceive. In the market-place a statue, erected to Lawrence Koster, announces that this city boasts of having given birth to this man, who passes, especially at Haarlem, for the true inventor of printing, from whom Faust and Guttemberg have attempted to steal his types, his secret, and

* *M. Reichart*, counsellor of the Duke of Saxe-Cobourg-Gotha, author of 'Guide des Voyageurs en Europe.'

BOOK CLI.

his title to the gratitude of posterity. This city is also the country of the learned hellenist Cornelius Schrevelius, and of Wouvermans, Van-der-Helst, and several other celebrated painters. Its society of sciences, which ranks distinguished men amongst its members, and that called the *Teylerian*, which every year proposes prizes for the solution of several scientific questions, place Haarlem in the rank of the learned cities in Holland. It is also famed for its bleaching-grounds, its manufactures of wool and silk, of carpeting and velvets, its soap-works and type foundries, and, above all, for its gardens, where the culture of tulips has almost degenerated to a mania. All the surrounding grounds are consecrated to this species of industry—thus adding to the beauty of its environs, where there is distinguishable a magnificent promenade called *the Wood*, pleasure-houses in the finest style, and the ruins of the old fortress of Brederode, whose red towers rise majestically in the air.

Leyden.

The road from Haarlem to *Leyden*, formed between a canal and the calm sea of Haarlem, is equally beautiful, and as well kept, as the walks of an English garden; it is not annoyed by carts, every thing in Holland being carried by canals. To this city, the birth-place of Rembrandt, of Gerard Dow, of Muschenbroeck, of Isaac Vossius, and of John of Leyden, the leader of the German fanatical and misled anabaptists of the sixteenth century, it is, for an extent of six miles, one continued agreeable promenade in the midst of meadow-grounds, country houses, and elegant villages. Formerly celebrated for its industry, and for its trade in books, which the printing-presses of the Elzevirs rendered so active, it still contains a population of more than 28,000 souls. Its university, founded in 1575, possessing fine collections, a library of 60,000 volumes and 14,000 manuscripts, and enjoying a high reputation in the learned world, is at all times much resorted to. Of great extent, surrounded with fossés and with walls opening to the country round by eight gates, Leyden is the union of a vast number of islands, intersected by canals bordered with trees, covered with wide and straight streets, which communicate with each other by a vast number of bridges, principally of

stone. The principal street, called the Rupenburg, is a very fine one, and considered by the people of Leyden as unrivalled in Europe: whatever may be in this, the whole appearance of the town is pleasing; and the number of handsome houses and venerable-looking buildings give it an air of importance. In its town-house is to be seen one of the finest pictures of Lucas, one of its painters, representing the last judgment. The Gothic church of saint Peter contains the tomb of the celebrated and excellent Boërhaave. The old castle, a witness of the famous siege which this city sustained in 1574 against the Spaniards, during which more than 6000 persons perished by famine, contains a labyrinth visited by strangers. Several parts of this fortress appear to be of Roman construction, which seems confirmatory of the opinion, hitherto uncertain, that Leyden occupies the ground of *Lugdunum Batavorum*, mentioned in the Theodosian Table, in the Itinerary of Antoninus, and by Ptolemy, as the most important city of the *Batavi*. This city, and the Hague, which is but three leagues from it, are in South Holland. It is deserving notice in a geographical work, that it is at Leyden where the Rhine, till very lately, in the words of an old traveller, 'faintly finished its course, by losing the small remainder of its waters in two or three canals, without having the honour to enter into the sea.' The fate of this mighty river is singular and hard. After rolling its majestic stream from the Lake of Constance to the frontiers of Holland, it is there robbed of its name by the Waal, which carries off the largest half of its waters. Before its arrival at Arnheim, the canal of the Yssel, running to the eastward, deprives it of another part of them; and again, below Arnheim, the Leck has usurped the name of the principal branch of the stream, leaving the smaller and now much-diminished branch, under the splendid name of the Rhine, to pass on to Utrecht, where the Vecht carries off another part of its waters. What remains of this mighty river was formerly lost in a marsh, without reaching the sea, but is by a canal, cut between the years 1804 and 1810, carried to the sea, which it joins at the village of *Katwyk*.

The Rhine at Leyden.

BOOK CLI.

The Hague

The number of considerable cities which cover the territories of the small province of South Holland is extraordinary; we can only notice the most interesting. The *Hague* (Dutch, *Haag*, or *S'Growenhgaa*; Fr. *La Haye*), as the residence of the court, and the place where the States-General assemble, merits the first notice. Before the revolution of Brussels in 1830, the Hague divided this honour with that city. Its importance does not arise from its size and population; but it must, notwithstanding, be reckoned among the finest cities in Europe. It is one of the small number of those in the Low Countries, the soil of which is dry, and the air pure and healthy. Two-thirds of its streets are intersected by canals bordered with trees; fine plantations cover also its squares, and render the regularity of its buildings more agreeable to the eye. An air of ease is observable in every part of the Hague, which is a parliamentary rather than a commercial city. The mercantile quarter is composed of streets, narrow indeed, but yet of great neatness; in the quarter where the burgesses reside, the houses have a handsome appearance, and the streets are wide, straight, and paved with bricks; the finest is the *Prinzen-Gracht*. The old Palace-Royal, an immense building, but an ungraceful combination of the different orders of architecture, contains a fine library, a collection of medals, valuable pictures, and the archives of the kingdom. The new palace, built by William III, and those of the count of Bentheim and Prince Maurice of Nassau, are each of them splendid of their kind. The palace last mentioned contains the Museum, which is visited by all the curious: more than 400 pictures recall the ancient splendour of The Flemish and Dutch schools. A museum, filling several apartments, contains a magnificent collection of Chinese and Japanese curiosities, besides objects of great value in the eyes of such Hollanders, as are acquainted with the history of their country. There are here preserved the clothes worn by William of Nassau, the founder of the Dutch republic, when struck by a ball from the fanatic Balthasar Gerard; the dress of the stadtholder William III; the hair of William IV; the hat of de Ruyter; the silver drinking-cups of the Marquis Spinola; and

Public buildings.

the silver trowel employed by Alexander of Russia in plastering a stone in the hut of his great progenitor at Saardam. The Stadt, or town-house, the market for corn, and the new church, are likewise fine edifices; the last is especially remarkable for its wood-work. We would enter upon by far too extensive a field, were we to enumerate or describe the hospitals, the charity-houses, the schools, the collections, and the scientific societies of the Hague. All the cities of the Low Countries possess similar establishments. Let us only notice, before proceeding, that this royal city is the country of the astronomer Huyghens, and of the poet Joannes Secundus, who imitated with so much grace and ease the language of Ovid. The environs of the Hague, so agreeable and verdant, are besides adorned by charming houses and magnificent walks. The beauty of the walk called *the Wood* surpasses every thing imaginable of it; majestic trees intertwine their thick foliage in the air; at the extremities of the walk, pavilions concealing, under elegant fronts, garden or coffee-houses, serve as places of entertainment for pedestrians; for the Dutch prefer shutting themselves up in these pavilions, to which they are attracted on the Sundays by excellent bands of music, to enjoying pure air under the great arches of this magnificent wood. Near this promenade is situated the beautiful royal mansion of *Orangenzaal.* A fine avenue conducts to the village of *Scheveling* or *Scheveningen,* where are to be found different places of amusement. Its length is said to be nearly two miles in a straight line, having a spacious path in the centre for carriages, with a separate path for equestrians and pedestrians on each side of the centre path. The spire of Scheveling church is seen at the extremity of the avenue, and the effect of the whole is very striking. To the south-east of the Hague lies the castle of *Ryswick,* where was signed in 1697 the treaty of peace between the Germanic empire, Spain, England, Holland, and France. An obelisk has been erected to record the memory of this event.

Environs of the Hague.

The country between the Hague and the Delft is 'a piece of animated tranquillity. All that art has done is to give appropriate decoration to rural objects, and every cottage bears the marks of comfort and prosperity. Canals,

BOOK CLI.

raised above the level of the sea, and of the neighbouring plains; windmills, curiously and beautifully thatched; large farms, overspread with flourishing cattle; level and excellent roads;'* villas, walks, and gardens, are some of the features of the agreeable landscape spread before the traveller. *Delft*, two leagues from the Hague, occupies a beautiful position on the banks of the *Schie*. It is a place of defence of the third class, a city without stir, and almost without trade, although possessing manufactures of cloth, carpeting, and soap, besides brew-houses of reputation. Formerly it was celebrated for its potteries, and hence the name of *Delft-ware*. It is 800 years old; but the houses are well built, and the public buildings are even magnificent. 'The deserted streets declare that the best days of Delft are passed away. Every thing about the streets and houses shows remarkable attention to neatness; and Delft, although without the interest attending the bustle of trade, remains a true specimen of an old Dutch town.' We see in the old church the tombs of Admiral Heyn and the celebrated Tromp; the new church contains those of Grotius and the physician Leuwenhoeck, both natives of Delft, which they have thus rendered illustrious; but the most remarkable monument in this church is the mausoleum of William I: at *Prinsen-Hof*, a few steps from it, this prince was assassinated by Balthasar Gerard. From Delft, in less than two hours, we arrive at *Rotterdam*, the most commercial and the most populous city in Holland next to the capital. Rotterdam, besides being one of the most beautiful cities in Holland, is most advantageously situated for trade, both foreign and internal. It stands on one of the branches of the Meuse, about twenty miles from the German Ocean, and by this river vessels of a large size come up to it, and, by means of canals, are carried to different parts of the city, and to the very doors of the houses. 'Nothing,' says an old traveller quaintly, 'can be compared with the pleasant mixture of chimneys, tops of trees, and streamers of vessels; one is astonished to behold so beautiful a confusion, and can hardly tell whether it be a

Delft.

Rotterdam.

* For. Quart. Review, No. IX, vol. v. p. 227.

fleet, a city, or a forest.' The city is well paved and clean, the houses well built, and every thing appears to indicate an active and prosperous commerce. There are no remarkable public buildings; but the quay, called the *Boompjes*, presents a long line of handsome houses, the mansions of wealthy merchants. It possesses schools and learned societies; it is the native place of Erasmus, whose house may still be seen, and to whom they have erected a statue in bronze; and yet it is the only large city in the Netherlands which does not possess a public library. With this fact before us, shall we be guilty of injustice towards the inhabitants of Rotterdam, in pronouncing them the Bœotians of the Low Countries. Absorbed by their commercial occupations, the moments must be very few which they have to devote to the study of letters and the sciences!* The name of this city signifies the *dike of Rotter*, because it is situated at the place where the small river of that name throws itself into the Lower Meuse. Between an arm of the river and the lake of Biesbosch, stands *Dordrecht* or *Dort*, a city which disputes the palm of antiquity with Delft. It is distant from Rotterdam about four leagues, and is fortified; but its situation in the midst of an island would prove a much better defence than the old ramparts that surround it. The trade of Dort was once very considerable, and its situation is said to be more favourable for foreign trade than Rotterdam, the harbour admitting vessels of greater burden; but, whatever be the cause, the trade now is very limited, and confined very much to timber, which is floated down the Rhine in immense rafts. The buildings of Dort are chiefly old-fashioned. Within the bounds of this city was held, in 1618 and 1619, the famous synod which condemned the doctrines of Arminius; and at same time the States-General, influenced by Prince Maurice, sentenced and put to death the grand pensionary Barnevelt at the advanced age of 72, 50 of which he had spent with integrity and ability in the service of his coun-

Dordrecht.

* 'We speak advisedly,' say the Foreign Quarterly Reviewers, 'in saying that Rotterdam has among its inhabitants writers of a high order, and that a literary spirit is widely diffused among them.' — *Foreign Quarterly Review, No. IX*, Vol. v. p. 227.

BOOK CLI.

try. The learned Grotius was imprisoned along with Barnevelt, and, after a detention of several years, escaped through a stratagem of his wife. The two brothers, John and Cornelius De Witt, who were torn to pieces by an insurrection of the populace in 1672, were natives of Dort.

Middlebourg.

The province of Zeeland, formed by the islands which lie at the mouth of the Scheld, has for its capital *Middlebourg*, in the island of Walcheren. This is an industrious commercial city, wealthy, and even attached to learning, or at least possessing a society of the sciences, besides being the birth-place of Leydeker, author of a work on the Hebrew republic. A large canal, constructed in 1817, supplies the place of its ancient harbour. In the same island

Flushing.

Flushing or *Vlissingen*, is defended by important fortifications, possesses a large and secure harbour, docks which can contain 80 ships of the line, building-yards and immense store-houses, erections for which they are indebted in a great measure to the French, who, after having expelled the English in 1809, kept possession of this place till 1814. It was the first city which, in 1572, erected the standard of liberty; and had also the glory of giving birth to the renowned De Ruyter. The house where he was born is still shown to strangers.

In northern Brabant, the farthest south of the Dutch provinces, and the most important for the rank which it occupies in the States-General, ten cities would merit being mentioned, if we did not wish to avoid the monotonous repetitions which would follow the description of a great number of places presenting the same appearance. The three principal places are fortified towns. On the right bank of the eastern Scheld, and in the midst of swamps,

Bergen-op-zoom.

stands *Bergen-op-zoom*, celebrated as a fortress, and regarded as a chef-d'oeuvre of the celebrated Coehorn. It is famed for the anchovies which are caught in its neighbourhood, and for its earthen ware. The tower of the castle widens as it rises, seems ready to fall, and shakes with the least wind.

Bois-le-Duc.

Bois-le-Duc, in Dutch *Hertogenbosch*, is the capital of the province. Watered by the Dommel and the Aa, which unite lower down, and fall into the Meuse, it can, by inun-

dating the environs, augment the means of defence which its citadel and two forts already afford. The streets are straight and well built; the canals branch into nine divisions; the town-house and cathedral are its finest edifices, and its trade is considerable. Among its celebrated men, are reckoned the painter Jerome Bos, and the mathematician S'Gravesande. Betwixt these two cities, and eight leagues from both of them, stands *Breda*, defended by fortifications which are nearly a league in circumference, and by vast marshes. It is celebrated in the annals of war: in 1590, Maurice of Nassau, made himself master of it by concealing in a boat loaded with turf, which he caused to enter the place by night, eighty soldiers, who secured the governor and opened the gates. Spinola, the Spanish general, thirty-five years later, forced it to surrender, and burned the famous boat. The French seized it in 1794; but in 1813, during a sortie which they made to attack the besieging Russian army, the inhabitants rose up, closed the gates and prevented the garrison from re-entering. One of its finest buildings is the great church, the spire of which is 360 feet high.

Breda.

Character of the Dutch.

There are few countries where the physical constitution of the soil appears to have more influence upon the character and manners of the inhabitants than the Dutch provinces. The humidity of the climate renders them dull, phlegmatic, and slow; they are rarely affected by violent passions, but their apathy ceases whenever their interest is affected. Selfishness is said to be the basis of their actions, love of gain their chief stimulant. Let us acknowledge, however, that these two failings have been the causes of their past greatness, of their riches, their patriotism, and even of the wisdom of their institutions, and that economy is become one of their political virtues. If their parsimony led them to throw off the yoke of Spain which loaded them with taxes, — to refuse to pay tithes to the clergy, — and indulgences to the Roman pontiff; in the great struggle which they sustained in the sixteenth century, their calculating spirit, and their perseverance triumphed over every obstacle. They felt that religious liberty was the basis of civil liberty; and that this last confirmed freedom of trade and

BOOK CLI.

industry; and, in the knowledge of this, they preserved as long as they could, the advantages of a representative government. On this account, whatever may have been the moving spring of their great actions, they have at least the merit of having directed their interested views towards what might be conducive to the promoting the prosperity of their country. Their traducers have thought it sufficient to bring forward their faults, to diminish the favourable impression made upon the mind by that crowd of useful works and establishments maintained at so great an expense, which give to Holland so peculiar an aspect. These dikes, say these detractors, raised to arrest the encroachments of the ocean, are only owing to their care for their own preservation: these canals which intersect the country in every direction, have been cut with no other view than to favour their commercial relations; these hospitals, these benevolent establishments, so excellent and so numerous, have only been founded to shelter a rich aristocracy from the attacks of the lower classes; their good faith in matters of business has no view but the necessity of securing confidence.* Man is a being composed of virtues and vices; and we ought not to expect from a people more disinterestedness than from an individual. Who does not see that in attributing to their interest alone, the institutions and spirit of order which do honour to the Dutch, we render homage to their judgment? They are reproached with their national pride. Where is then the nation which does not love to look back upon its past splendour? The French themselves, the most lively people in the world, do they not rather prefer to think upon their military glory, than upon that which they have acquired in the arts, in literature, and in the sciences?

Manners of the Dutch.

The manners of the Dutch are not dissolute: this has been attributed with some reason, to the coldness of their character, and to their parsimonious turn. Not very delicate in their affections, those who have mistresses choose them from the class of servants, and sometimes the women show themselves not more difficult to please in the choice of the objects of their weakness. There is much less de-

* See a work entitled: Quatre mois dans les Pays-Bas, tom. ii.

pravity found among the lower classes in Holland than in any part of Europe. It is very seldom that we hear thefts spoken of, and still more rare to hear of crimes committed. To go little abroad, to smoke much, to eat and drink often, are nearly the principal amusements of the rich Hollanders. They do not appreciate the pleasures of society, but they can taste the quiet enjoyment of domestic life. The only intercourse in society that does take place, is regulated by business or profession. Thus, there are captains of vessels, rich merchants and bankers, persons in public office, traders, courtiers, shopkeepers, burgesses; but these classes never mix, and even live in a sort of jealousy one of another. Artists and men of letters are little thought of, and though there is no country where there are found more museums, scientific collections, literary and learned societies, the good days when so many literary characters, savans, and celebrated painters, were seen to shine in Holland are for ever past; sciences and the arts are now only the relaxations of the industrious rich, who, appreciating properly the noble efforts of the human mind, spare no expense to give to their children an education which disposes them to give themselves up to similar enjoyments.

STATISTICAL TABLE

OF

THE BELGIAN PROVINCES.

BOOK CLI.

Provinces.	Population in 1827.	Superficies in hectares.		Population.
South Brabant	492,736	307,733	BRUSSELS	100,000
			Louvain	16,000
			Tirlemont	8,000
			Nivelles	7,000
Hainault	546,245	377,390	MONS	20,000
			Tournay†	33,000
			Ath	8,000
Namur	190,482	345,600	NAMUR†	17,000
			Dinant	4,000
Liege	337,556	282,593	LIEGE†	49,000
			Verviers	16,000
			Huy	5,000
Limburg	324,368	455,316	MAESTRICHT	19,000
			Venloo	6,000
			Ruremonde	4,000
			Hasselt	6,000
			Saint-Trond	7,000
Antwerp	319,285	282,293	ANTWERP	65,000
			Turnhout	10,000
			Malines‡	18,000
			Liere	11,000
East Flanders	689,158	298,370	GHENT	70,000
			Oudenarde	5,000
			Alost	12,000
			Termonde	6,000
			Renaix	10,000
			Saint-Nicolas	14,000
			Lokeren	13,000
West Flanders	671,034	317,422	BRUGES†	36,000
			Ostend	10,000
			Courtray	16,000
			Menin	5,000
			Thielt	10,000
			Ypres	15,000
Luxemburg	291,759	626,343	LUXEMBURG	10,000
			Arlon	3,000
			Bouillon	3,000
Total	3,862,623	3,293,070		

STATISTICAL TABLE

OF

THE DUTCH PROVINCES.

Administrative Divisions, Superficies and Population.

Provinces.	Population in 1827.	Superficies in hectares.		Population.
North Holland	405,929	229,200	AMSTERDAM †*	201,000
			Haarlem	21,000
			Horn	10,000
			Alkmaar	9,000
			Zaandam	10,000
South Holland	440,662	277,830	ROTTERDAM	66,000
			The Hague	49,000
			Delft	14,000
			Leyden	29,000
			Dordrecht	11,000
			Gorcum	5,000
Zeeland	132,321	158,036	MIDDLEBOURG	13,000
			Flushing	5,000
Utrecht	122,395	127,617	UTRECHT	36,000
			Amersfort	9,000
Gueldres	284,266	517,098	ARNHEIM	10,000
			Nimeguen	13,000
			Zutphen	7,000
			Harderwyk	3,800
Over-Yssel	157,158	329,961	ZWOLL	13,000
			Deventer	10,000
			Campen	7,000
Drenthe	56,979	223,852	ASSEN	—
			Meppel	4,000
			Coeverden	2,000
Groningen	157,973	205,059	GRONINGEN	24,000
			Delfzyl	3,000
Friesland	200,654	260,732	LIEUWARDEN	17,000
			Harlingen	7,000
North Brabant	327,326	484,896	BOIS-LE-DUC†	13,000
			Breda	11,000
			Bergen-op-Zoom	6,000
	2,285,663	2,814,281		
Dutch Colonies as on next page	9,400,000			
	11,685,663			

BOOK CLI.

* The signs † and ‡ in this and preceding table indicate Bishopricks and Archbishopricks.

BOOK CLI.

DUTCH COLONIES.

9,400,000	*Elmina* or Saint George of the Mine. Various small forts upon the Gold Coast in Guinea	Africa.
	Sumatra (the greatest part of this island with Bencoolen.) *Java*, whose capital Batavia, is also that of all Dutch Oceanica. *Madura* in whole. *Celebes* in part. *Borneo*, do. Archipelago of *Sumbava* and *Timor*, almost entirely. Archipelago of the *Moluccas*, almost entirely. Land of *Papua* in New Guinea. Islands of *Papua*. *Riou*, a small island, now become of little commercial importance.	Oceanica.
	Islands of *Bonair*, *Curaçao*, *St Eustatius*, part of the island of *Saint-Martin*, *Saba* and some smaller islands of little importance. Colony of Surinam in Guiana.	America.

STATISTICAL TABLES

CONNECTED WITH

THE LATE KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS,

EMBRACING

BOTH DUTCH AND BELGIAN PROVINCES.

I. *Movement of the Population for ten years.*

Provinces.	Population.		Births.	Deaths.	Marriages.	Divorces.
	1815.	1825.				
Zeeland	111,108	129,329	55,331	42,436	10,645	27
Gueldres	264,097	284,363	90,862	59,818	19,337	13
North Brabant	294,087	326,617	100,863	69,507	20,380	1
North Holland	375,257	393,916	145,744	121,725	34,789	209
South Holland	388,505	438,202	165,741	143,850	34,942	148
Utrecht	107,947	117,405	41,038	29,928	8,982	30
Friesland	176,554	202,530	65,565	38,219	15,327	46
Overyssel	147,229	160,937	51,951	37,479	11,629	13
Groningen	135,642	156,045	51,673	30,539	11,492	37
Drenthe	46,459	53,368	16,723	9,858	3,954	3
Limburg	287,613	321,246	101,781	70,549	22,960	5
Liege	58,185	331,101	113,623	82,698	24,387	24
Namur	364,400	189,393	58,690	34,134	12,592	8
Luxemburg	113,597	292,610	92,242	58,695	18,740	1
Hainault	288,595	546,190	183,198	118,289	39,591	27
South Brabant	441,649	495,455	169,181	119,109	36,423	5
East Flanders	615,689	687,267	218,830	162,834	43,120	0
West Flanders	516,324	563,826	191,139	141,310	37,882	6
Antwerp	291,565	323,678	101,471	70,623	23,075	2
The Kingdom	5,424,502	6,013,478	2,015,646	1,441,600	430,247	605

II. *Table showing the Ratio of Population to Deaths, Births, &c.*

Provinces.	Rate of increase of population for 5 years to 1825.	Ratio of population in 1824 to			Ratio of female to male births in 1824.	Ratio of births to marriages in 1824.
		Deaths.	Births.	Marriages.		
North Holland	0.040	34.5	23.2	104.4	0.956	4.50
East Flanders	0.051	44.8	28.4	165.3	0 946	5.82
Limburg	0.053	47.5	29.2	90.3	0.956	3.09
Antwerp	0.056	48.8	30.7	142.9	0.960	4.65
Zeeland	0.056	31.4	20.7	113.7	0.960	5.49
North Brabant	0.059	51.4	29.2	150.0	0.974	5.14
Namur	0.062	57.9	29.8	150.9	0.907	5.06
Liege	0.065	46.2	28.9	154.1	0.942	5.33
Utrecht	0.068	36.3	24.3	118.2	0.939	4.86
South Brabant	0.068	38.2	26.1	142.2	0.970	5.45
Gueldres	0.069	53.7	27.6	131.1	0.952	4.75
South Holland	0.070	35.0	23.9	113.3	0.959	4.74
Overyssel	0.071	43 5	26.5	121.9	0.937	4.60
West Flanders	0.073	40.7	27.5	137.7	0.930	5.01
Hainault	0.073	51.1	27.4	136.5	0.921	4.98
Groningen	0.078	49.3	28.9	149.3	0.898	5.17
Luxemburg	0.080	53.8	27.9	149.9	0.967	5.37
Friesland	0.086	46.1	27.1	128.7	0.944	5.75
Drenthe	0.087	55.0	27.8	130.3	0.895	4.69
Average for the kingdom	0.062	43.8	27.0	132.4	0.947	4.90
Do. for 1825	—	41.0	27.1	127.2	0.943	4.70

III. *Land in Cultivation.**

Provinces.	Hectares of land in the whole.	Hectares in in cultivation.
Zeeland	158,416†	148,029
Guelderland	509,195	289,802
North Brabant	501,293	277,183
North Holland	245,114	203,008
South Holland	287,181	244,213
Utrecht	133,194	110,281
Friesland	263,618	235,705
Overyssel	328,712	175,863
Groningen	204,899	173,063
Drenthe	229,266	74,229
Limburg	466,687	310,514
Liege	288,992	237,579
Namur	347,683	278,397
Luxemburg	650,210	463,423
Hainault	372,469	356,258
South Brabant	328,426	316,883
East Flanders	282,361	264,968
West Flanders	316,585	296,915
Antwerp	283,830	197,303
Total	6,198,131	4,653,636

* There are some slight differences in the quantities of land as exhibited in this table, and the tables on pages 666 and 667. The present table is taken from the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. X, art. *Netherlands.*

† A hectare of land is equal to 2½ English acres.

IV. *State of the present Manufacturing Interest in the Netherlands.*

Substances.	Value in Fr.	Substances.	Value in Fr.
Iron	46,000,000	Brought forward	608,000,000
Copper	5,000,000	Dyeing	10,000,000
Woollens	80,000,000	Paper	8,000,000
Linens	95,000,000	Caps and Bonnets	7,000,000
Cottons	50,000,000	Cheese	10,000,000
Sugar (refined)	14,000,000	Jewellery	4,000,000
Salt (do)	10,000,000	Starch	3,500,000
Spirits	40,000,000	Acids and Salts	1,500,000
Beer	112,000,000	Cordage	3,000,000
Tobacco	28,000,000	Hats	6,000,000
Oil	30,000,000	Glass	2,000,000
Soap	10,000,000	Clocks	4,000,000
Lace	25,000,000	Cards	1,200,000
Leather	28,000,000	Embroidery	1,200,000
Earthenware and Pottery	4,000,000	Turnery	600,000
Bricks and Tiles	6,000,000	Lead and Zinc	1,000,000
Printing and Books	15,000,000	Miscellaneous	4,000,000
Bleaching	10,000,000		
Carry forward	608,000,000	Total	675,000,000

V. *Principal Branches of the Expenditure of the Netherlands.*

IN FLORINS.

	1816.	1821.	1826.	Average for the eleven years.
King's household	2,600,000	2,600,000	2,100,000	2,531,636
Great offices of state	1,468,635	1,211,285	1,065,430	1,202,811
Foreign affairs	937,838	705,503	766,969	787,638
Justice	3,394,511	3,221,347	2,191,049	3,243,567
Interior and Waterstaat — Expense of canals, &c.	7,245,910	5,019,322	6,159,249	5,744,439
Religions, except the Catholic	1,264,261	1,423,449	1,327,311	1,351,813
Catholic religion	1,325,176	2,086,730	1,631,413	1,662,863
Education, arts, commerce and colonies	3,894,736	1,723,882	73,019*	2,155,520
Finances	23,314,342	34,309,517	38,707,562	31,553,101
Navy	6,554,531	5,037,745	6,582,842	5,775,711
Army	27,128,574	17,427,732	18,444,535	22,852,651

Finances.

Revenue in Fr. 161,836,000. Debt in Fr. 3,800,000,000.

* The charges for education are now included under the head of 'Interior.'

VI. *Publications in the Netherlands.*

	1825.	1826.	1827.
Theology	111	103	99
Jurisprudence, Medicine, Physics	93	105	146
History	94	96	96
Philology, Poetry, Theatricals	135	134	114
Miscellaneous, Novels	246	325	286
	679	763	741
Translations from German		107	120
Do. French		57	58
Do. English		30	25
Do. Spanish		1	—
		195	203

VII. *Students of the Universities of the Netherlands,* 1*st Jan.* 1826.

	Theology.	Law.	Medicine.	Sciences.	Philosophy and Letters.	Total.
Leyden	103	138	60	8	227	536
Utrecht	154	103	29	33	170	480
Groningen	94	73	28	14	91	300
Louvain	0	154	70	63	335	622
Liege	0	197	84	63	115	481
Ghent	0	144	124	33	54	355
	351	809	386	214	992	2774

The Increase, during a period of three years, in the Students of the whole six establishments is thus exhibited:

	1824.	1825.	1826.
Theology	246	325	351
Law	723	807	809
Medicine	355	374	386
Sciences	233	226	214
Philosophy and Letters	718	904	992
Total	2275	2636	2752

VIII. *State of Education in the kingdom of the Netherlands, 1st January, 1826.*

Provinces.	Pupils in the Primary Schools. Boys.	Pupils in the Primary Schools. Girls.	Pupils in the Small Schools.	Pupils in the Schools of Industry.	Total.	Expenses of Primary Instruction — 1826.	Colleges or Latin Schools.	Proportion of Pupils to the Population for each 1000 inhabitants.	Periodicals and Journals.
North Brabant	20,630	14,529	2,624	195	37,978	48,066	420	116.02	6
South Brabant	21,993	16,177	4,863	508	43,541	74,293	779	88.36	40
Limburg	13,493	8,795	1,466		23,754	22,050	782	73.23	2
Guelderland	18,881	12,243	2,031		33,155	58,245	172	116.63	4
Liege	13,794	8,539	933	67	23,333	12,311	634	69.12	10
East Flanders	25,644	22,205	6,399	1,624	55,872	21,065	274	81.07	5
West Flanders	21,028	17,830	6,888	11,376	57,122	34,681	256	85.12	4
Hainault	32,179	21,736	6,504	18	60,437	61,379	1,263	110.64	3
North Holland	22,018	16,880	9,062	88	48,048	159,226	221	118.36	38
South Holland	23,813	16,885	8,179	1,296	50,173	116,715	225	113.40	22
Zeeland	7,959	4,813	1,386	47	14,205	35,267	37	107.35	8
Namur	12,139	9,565	1,247	27	22,978	37,919	435	120.68	
Antwerp	15,805	11,914	2,969	713	31,401	34,765	570	98.35	3
Utrecht	6,765	5,165	1,468	277	13,675	27,433	119	111.65	2
Friesland	14,571	10,351	2,011		26,933	48,104	121	134.22	1
Overyssel	13,484	10,587	1,582	219	25,872	41,824	113	164.62	1
Groningen	11,883	9,374	331		21,588	23,660	84	136.65	4
Drenthe	4,770	4,039	90		8,899	8,572	28	156.18	1
Luxemburg	19,925	14,819	160		34,904	24,798	505	119.63	2
Total	320,774	236,446	60,193	16,455	633,868	890,373	7,038	103.09	156

BOOK CLI.

IX. *Commercial Movement of the principal Ports of the kingdom, years* 1826 — 1828.

		1826.	1827.	1828.
Ships entered	at Amsterdam	1,887	1,982	2,132
Do.	at Rotterdam	1,587	1,731	2,085
Do.	at Antwerp	928	822	955
Do.	at Ostend	482	501	574
Herring Fishing		131	142	

X. *Army and Navy in* 1829.

Army			43,297 men.
Navy	Ships in Commission		4,314 men.
	Ships of the Line	12	131 vessels.
	Frigates	33	
	Corvettes	36	
	Smaller vessels	50	

XI. *Charitable Institutions of the Netherlands.*

Nature of Institutions.	Number of Institutions.	Individuals relieved.	Expenses of Relief.	Expense for each Individual.
Administrations for relieving the Poor at home	5,129	745,652	5,448,740	7.31
Commissions for distributing Food, &c,	36	22,056	82,424	3.73
Societies of Maternal Charity	4	1,448	13,493	9.32
Hospitals	724	41,172	4,091,157	99.37
Funds for Military Service	1	2,277	110,942	48.73
Royal Hospital of Messine	1	156	23,290	149.30
Poor Schools	285	147,296	247,176	1.67
Workhouses of Charity	34	6,169	406,704	65.92
Depôts of Mendicity	8	2,598	229,587	88.37
Societies of Beneficence for the Colonies	2	8,553	353,529	41.33
Establishments for the Deaf and Dumb	4	239	41,994	175.70
Total	6,228	977,616	11,049,036	[Average 11.30
Monts de Piété	124		4,208,068	
Savings Banks	50	18,035	2,771,608	[Av. 153.93

XII. State of Crime in the Netherlands in 1826.

Crimes against Persons.			
Nature of Crimes.	Accused.	Acquitted.	Condemned.
Political Crimes	0	0	0
Rebellion	68	26	42
Breach of Sanitary Laws	0	0	0
Escapes from Detention	3	0	3
Perjury and Subornation	17	2	15
Assassination	13	3	10
Poisoning	0	0	0
Parricide	0	0	0
Murder	24	7	17
Assaulting and Wounding	123	26	97
Assaults upon Authorities	21		17
Arbitrary Arrests	0	0	0
Menaces	5	2	3
Mendicity with violence	1	0	1
Bigamy	2	0	2
Abortion	0	0	0
Infanticide	2	0	2
Child-stealing	0	0	0
Rapes and Attempts	16	2	14
Rapes on children under 15 years	9	1	8
Total	304	73	231

Crimes against Property.			
Nature of Crimes.	Accuse d.	Acquitted.	Condemned.
Exaction and Corruption	9	4	5
Embezzlement of the public money	10	0	10
Burning of Buildings	11	4	7
——— of other objects	0	0	0
Destruction of Property	8	6	2
False Coining	11	2	9
Counterfeit Seals, &c.	2	1	1
Fraud by False Pretences	5	1	4
——— in Commercial writings	12	0	12
Other Frauds	40	12	28
Fraudulent Bankruptcy	14	2	12
Robbery in churches	5	1	4
——— on the Highways	9	2	7
——— in Dwelling Houses	198	24	174
Other Robberies	744	91	653
Alteration of Bills, Bonds, &c.	0	0	0
Embezzlement of Titles and Deeds	2	0	2
Breaking Seals	0	0	0
Importing Prohibited Goods	5	0	5
Total	1085	150	935

BOOK CLII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Physical features of the British Islands.

An atmosphere of fogs, rain and perpetual variation; a political freedom which has long been the envy of the most enlightened nations: an established religion owing all its power to its disconnexion with every foreign influence: a perfect freedom of conscience: an industry which has increased tenfold the riches of the soil:—all these have given to the English, a sombre, abrupt and meditative character; a pride which leads them to look upon themselves as the first nation of the world; a solitary and retired mode of life: a set of manners different from those of the rest of Europe: intelligence superior to that of their neighbors: a species of egotism and a multitude of prejudices which give rise among the most numerous class, to that exclusive feeling which people agree to call national character; and among those who govern, to those principles, sometimes at war with justice, which have stamped British policy with a certain obliquity of character that has rendered it an object of distrust even to their own allies. Still Great Britain, in spite of the narrow limits of her actual territory, has so great a weight in the scale of the world; her power, essentially factitious, like that of the machines which multiply the product of human industry, places her upon so commanding an eminence, that no one can avoid admiring in her the spectacle of a formidable power, which like the steam that drives the vast enginery of her manufactures, or the ocean where she pretends to reign sole mistress, has roused up in her favour,

BOOK CLII.

or shaken to their foundations, almost every nation of the earth.

Enumeration of the British Isles.

The British Isles consist of — Great Britain, comprising England proper, Wales and Scotland; — Ireland lying west of this: the Hebrides west of Scotland: the Orkney Islands north of these last: and still farther north the Shetland Islands. South of Great Britain are a small number of islands, the most considerable of which is Jersey: to the S. W. is the little archipelago of the Scilly Islands. Several others, hereafter to be named, are scattered about among the preceding. We shall begin our description with those nearest the coast of France, — the *Anglo-Norman Isles.*

Six leagues from the western coast of the department of La Manche lies *Jersey,* which the Itinerary of Antoninus calls *Sarnia;* this island is defended on the north by rocks of 200 feet elevation: while on the south a surface of shifting sand sinks nearly to the level of the sea. Its length from W. to E. is 4 leagues; its breadth 2: the centre is hilly, and the soil fertile: the orchards of apple trees which cover it do not admit the cultivation of corn, but furnish annually 26,000 hogsheads of cider: and numerous droves of cattle pasture among the trees. The principal manufactures are woollen stockings and caps. *Guernsey,* farther north, and equal in breadth, but shorter by a league, offers a diversified vegetation. Wood is scarce, but the seaweed thrown upon the shore, serves at once for manure and fuel. The little isle of *Sark,* near Guernsey, is surrounded by rocks: the air is free from fogs, and the soil produces sufficient grain for the consumption of the inhabitants: the interior abounds in rabbits, and the shores in sea-fowl. North of these islands, and within 3 leagues of Cape La Hogue is *Alderney,* called by the French *Origny,* and known formerly to the Romans by the name of *Arica:* this island is small, but sufficiently fertile to render its corn an important object of commerce. In the night we may descry from the French coast, the three lights which shine from the summits of three isolated rocks, against which the breakers dash and render the shore dangerous in a storm. Off against *Land's End,* the southwestern extremity of Great Britain, lie the small isles of *Scilly,* 145 in number, but of which five only are

inhabited, namely, *St Mary*, *St Agnes*, *Tresco*, *St Martin* and *Bryor*, or *Brehar*. Excellent wheat is raised in these last. They were known to the ancients by the name of *Cassiterides*. Numbers of druidical monuments are found upon them. *Anney* is remarkable for the numerous druidical stone basins which it contains. This island, now desert, was probably larger in former times: at low water, the foundations may be seen of many buildings overflowed by the sea.

Great Britain.

The Island of Great Britain is the largest in Europe: its extreme length is about 200 leagues: in the south it is 110 leagues broad; at the centre 28: and near the centre of Scotland 62. It is situated between 49° 57′ and 58° 43′ north latitude, and between 35′ and 8° 34′ west longitude from Paris. Its surface contains 11,400 leagues. Its eastern and southern shores are less deeply indented than the western: they are consequently bolder. There are no islands upon the eastern coast, and upon the southern none except that of Wight and two others of inconsiderable size: on the west are those of Scilly already described, Anglesey, Man, Arran, Ila, Jura, Mull, Tiry, Egg, Rum, Sky, the Hebrides and Orkneys. In the south the largest bay is that of Exeter. In the east are, beginning at the south, the sandy bay of the Thames; the Wash, where the little stream called the Glen meets the sea; the frith which receives the Humber; the friths of Forth, Murray and Dornoch. On the western coast are the friths of Clyde and Solway; the bays of Morecambe and Arlech, and the Bristol Channel, which receives the Severn.

Mountains.

The mountains of this island constitute a system to which belong those of all the British Isles. Excluding Ireland, they compose three groups: the first toward the north is formed by the highlands of Caithness and Inverness; of this group the Orkneys, the Hebrides, Sky and Mull are the extremities: The second consists of the Grampian Hills and some other eminences which terminate at the friths of Forth and Clyde: The third comprises the Cheviot Hills and the broken surface of Wales and the

BOOK CLII.

south part of the island. The first group does not rise above 2500 feet: the highest eminence in the second attains to 4400, and in the third a few summits rise to 2500 and 3100 feet.

Basins and Rivers.

There are no basins of great extent. The hills of Caithness, and the Grampian chain form the one most northerly: the most considerable and rapid river of this basin is the *Spey* which flows with a swift course, and with much obstruction from cataracts into Murray Frith. The southern ramifications of the Grampians form with the Cheviots an extensive basin through which flows the *Forth:* this river in a course of 60 leagues traverses an extent of meadows, forests, and fertile plains, and its waters abound in excellent fish. The Moorlands and a few other hills surround the vast basin of the *Ouse,* which under the name of *Ure* rises in the valley of Wensley, flows to Aysgarth, where it forms a beautiful cascade, takes the name of Ouse after receiving the Swale, and the name of *Humber* upon joining the Ocean. The ridge which forms the southern limit of this basin, bounds on the north that of the most important river of Great Britain, the Thames. The basins of the southern face of the island are too small to give rise to any considerable stream. Those on the western face are of small extent, except that traversed by the *Severn:* this basin is formed by the highest mountains of England and Wales: the Severn rises at the foot of Plinlimmon and runs into the Bristol Channel. The basin of the *Clyde* in Scotland, is narrow, but worthy of notice for the beautiful falls of this river, one of which near Stone Byres is 84 feet perpendicular. The region watered by this stream is one of the most romantic, fertile, and populous in the whole country.

The Spey. The Forth. The Ouse. The Thames. The Severn. The Clyde.

Derwent Water.

The lakes of Great Britain are small; the largest in England is *Derwent Water,* four miles long and one wide. Its beautiful banks are much frequented in summer. It embosoms several islands, and its waters are subject to violent agitations without any apparent cause. In Scotland

are many lakes, the most noted of which is *Loch Lomond*, 30 miles long and two to three wide.

Loch Lomond.

The geological features of Great Britain are highly interesting from the circumstance of its containing rocks of every age. This has given a wide extension in England to the study of geology and metallurgy. Slate and coal are among the most important mineral productions of the island. Both in the north and south, mines of iron and lead are numerous: copper and tin occur in the S. W. The north contains copper, mercury, and precious stones; minerals abound in every quarter. The mines of Great Britain and Ireland are estimated at a value of 41,600,000 dollars. In Scotland micaceous schistus is the predominant rock. At the Orkneys, and the isle of Sky, red sandstone takes its place. From the frith of Clyde to Stonehaven, a belt of chlorite and quartz, divides the red sandstone from the micaceous schistus. Proceeding south, we meet with coal grit, red sandstone and graywacke at intervals.* In the other parts of Great Britain, different varieties of the sandstone and vast tracts of coal extend from the north to the banks of the Trent. In the west, argillaceous schistus occupies a large tract of territory upon the whole extent of coast, while vast beds of red marl and sandstone surround the deposits of coal in the S. and E. From the mouth of the Severn to that of the Humber, there stretches S. E. and N. W. a long strip of blue marl and lias: a parallel band of calcareous oolite, a deposit of encrinal limestone and another of blue marl extend toward the Channel followed by the friable and sandy beds of chalk marl, chalk, gypsum and other earths like those in the neighborhood of Paris. These deposits which continue to a distance from the shore are strong proofs of the former connexion of Great Britain with the continent. The narrow passage of the straits of Dover shows that the ocean can easily work its way through clay, sand and chalk.

Geology.

Climate.

The rigors of winter, and the heats of summer, are much less felt in Great Britain than on the continent under the same parallel. The winds from the sea, temper seasons the

* See Essai Geologique sur l'Ecosse, par M. A. Boué.

BOOK CLII.

most opposite, but the variations of temperature are sudden and frequent. If the northern regions are favorable to the growth of vegetables, the state of the atmosphere is often an obstacle to their maturity: rains destroy the too early expectation of a plentiful crop. Moreover, in the north there are wide tracts of barren territory, and on the eastern coast, sand and marshes oppose an obstacle to fertility. The most fertile districts are in the centre and south.

Wight.

Our geological description leads us in continuation, to those islands nearest Great Britain. On the south we encounter the isle of *Wight*, called by the ancient Romans *Vectis*, and by the ancient Britons *Guith*. Its shape is an irregular square, and its surface contains 30 square leagues. The little stream of Medina divides it, from north to south, into two parts, and a chain of hills crosses it from east to west. Its geological construction is very singular: it is a body of parallel bands following the direction of the hills: on the south these begin with a bed of ferruginous sand, on which lie sandy *glauconie*, chalk, clay, marine deposits and fresh water.* The soil is fertile, and produces seven times more corn than its inhabitants consume. The shores are rocky.

Anglesey.

Anglesey or *Anglesea*, near the western coast of Wales, is a larger island than Wight. It is 24 miles long and 17 broad. The ancient Britons called it *Mona* or *Moneg*: it was the residence of the supreme chief of the druids. The Romans, under the reign of Nero, conquered the island, although it was not entirely reduced to subjection until Agricola, incited by the resistance of the inhabitants, burnt the druids alive. Anglesey was successively ravaged by the Saxons and the Normans, and was finally reduced to obedience by the English under Edward I. On the side toward Great Britain it is covered with forests, the ancient sanctuaries of druidical superstition: barrows and heaps of stones still remain to remind us of its bloody ceremonies. The interior of the island is naked, without trees or even hedges: it offers nothing to the view but an undulating surface, watered by nu-

* See Outlines of the Geology of England and Wales, by Messrs Conybeare and Phillips.

merous springs, and covered with fertile fields. Corn is raised, and many cattle pastured in the island. A copper mine in the hill of Paris affords a source of considerable wealth: the metal occurs in a bed in some places 60 feet thick, the greatest mass of copper hitherto discovered: it is worked in the open air like a quarry. In this island are also mines of argentiferous lead, and rocks of beautiful green marble. The geologist will also notice granite, serpentine, and other transition and secondary deposits.

Man. North of Anglesey, opposite the Solway frith, is the *Isle of Man*, 10 leagues in length and 5 in breadth. The summer in this island is without much heat, so that its scanty vegetation has a peculiar character. There are several hills of granitic rock, but most of the island is a coal formation.

Arran. The mountainous island of *Arran*, where granite and rocks of an igneous formation are discoverable, seems to have been known to the ancients under the name of *Brandinos*. Six ponds which it contains, give rise to two small streams. The island is 7 leagues in length, and its shores abound in herring and salmon. All the islands along the Scotch coast, from the peninsula of Cantyre to Cape Wrath, are comprised within the name of the *Western Islands* or *Hebrides*: the ancients called them *Ebudes*. Those nearest the coast, *Ila* and *Jura*, are composed, for the most part, of micaceous and schistose rock: they contain a variety of metals, marshes, and heaths, and their atmosphere is moist and unhealthy. *Mull*, *Rum* and *Sky* are altogether volcanic; *South Uist*, *North Uist*, *Lewis*, and some others of less importance, which, with the foregoing, extend 48 leagues from north to south, appear to consist entirely of granite and mica. The chain formed by these is separated from Sky by a channel 6 leagues broad. The Hebrides, which amount in number to 300, are in general exposed to a cold air and unceasing fogs: 86 of them are inhabited and well cultivated: some are completely barren. Most of them have a variety of plants, but it is difficult to find upon any one of them a tree or even a bush. Hebrides.

Orkneys. The *Orkney* islands, which the French still call by their ancient name of *Orcades*, are separated from the northern extremity of Scotland by the Pentland Straits or Frith, in

BOOK CLII.

which the sea is so boisterous that the surf upon the rocks spreads a fine rain to above a league's distance within the land: no wind, however strong, will enable the mariner to stem the current in this place. There are 30 of these islands, but not half are inhabited. Red sand-stone is the prevailing rock: the stony soil wears a melancholy aspect, and there is little vegetation besides juniper, wild myrtle, heath, &c. Notwithstanding the rigour of the climate, there is little snow in winter, and it never lies long. Here may be remarked some of the phenomena attending the northern regions: in June and July the twilight is sufficiently strong to enable the inhabitants to read at midnight: in December and January the sun is not above the horizon for more than four hours.

Shetland.

In the *Shetland* or *Zetland* islands, these effects occur in a still higher degree; the longest day is 19 hours 15 minutes; the shortest 4 hours 45 minutes; the winter commences at the end of October and continues till April. During this season a perpetual rain is falling, storms beat against the shores, and the inhabitants are cut off from all communication with the rest of the world. The only spectacle which nature exhibits at this season is the aurora borealis, the brightness of which equals that of the full moon. The Shetland Islands are 86 in number, and 40 are inhabited. They contain granite and rocks of igneous origin, with red sandstone: their vegetation is poorer than that of the Orkneys, and their soil for the most part is marshy.

Ireland.

Ireland in the longest part is 105 leagues in length from north to south, and in the widest part 62 leagues in breadth. Its surface, which the numerous indentations of the coast render difficult to measure, contains about 3,800 square leagues. Situated under nearly the same parallel with England, it has a similar climate, although the air of Ireland is more humid. It lies west of Great Britain, between 51° 20′ and 55° 20′ north latitude, and between 7° 35′ and 12° 40′ west longitude from Paris. Its chains of mountains are numerous. Nearly all run north and south from Bengore Head to Carnsore Point; but from this last the most considerable extend from east to west. They constitute the

fourth group of the system of British mountains; none of them rise higher than 3160 feet.

Rivers.

The most important of the rivers to which they give rise is the *Shannon*, which rises in Allan Water, and passing through several lakes which increase its magnitude, falls into the Atlantic Ocean after a course of 50 leagues.

Lakes.

The dampness of the air of this country is much increased by the number and extent of its lakes: the largest of these is *Lough Earn*, about 10 leagues in length, and 4 in breadth. *Lough Neagh* is equal in breadth, but only 7 leagues long; a peculiarity of this lake is that its waters deposit a calcareous sediment like that of certain mineral springs: these waters are esteemed medicinal in a variety of maladies. *Corrib*, a lake about as long as the last, has a mean width of about a league. But the most noted of these lakes for the romantic scenery around it, is that of *Killarney;* its banks are ornamented with the arbutus, whose creeping branches and dark coloured berries of an agreeable taste, are reflected from the waters of the lake. Ireland was once covered with forests, but is almost entirely bare at present: immense *bogs*, a characteristic feature of the country, have taken their place: from the bottom of these bogs the inhabitants procure wood for fuel: it is in a state of complete preservation, and what induces a belief that these trunks of trees are the remains of ancient oak forests, is the fact that the waters seem to be saturated with tan. The skins of animals, and even of men who have been swallowed up in the bogs, have been found converted into a sort of leather. It is said that ornaments of gold and other antiquities have frequently been found in their depths.

Bogs.

Geology.

Ireland offers to the geologist rocks of every age, from the oldest to the newest. Some of the mountainous groups belong to the family of granites; micaceous rocks occupy all the southern part between Loughs Earn and Neagh: old limestone, which affords valuable marble, schistose slate, which excels that of Wales, sandstone, the whole coal formation, beds of gypsum, marly limestone, and other kinds, which afford excellent chalk, appear more or less distinctly; the whole coast parallel to Scotland, from the bay of *Carrickfergus* to Bengore Head is volcanic. Within these

BOOK CLII.

limits are contained the magnificent collection of basaltic pillars called the *Giant's Causeway*.

Metals.

Copper ore is found in various parts, and traces of mines of considerable antiquity have been discovered. Large masses of native gold have been found in the county of Wicklow: argentiferous lead abounds in Antrim: cobalt, manganese, and zinc occur in several places, and some collieries are wrought: those of *Castle Comer*, in the county of Kilkenny produce annually 40,000 quintals.

Animals of the British Islands.

The most useful plants and animals have been imported from the continent at different periods into the British Islands. At the most ancient period, England was covered with virgin forests like the wilds of America: the food of the inhabitants consisted of acorns, apples, nuts and berries: bears, wolves, and wild boars ranged undisturbed among these vast solitudes: the deer fed in the woods and the wild bull in the plains. The beasts of prey have disappeared; the deer only is reserved to afford a sport to the rich, and no other of the wild quadrupeds remain but the small tribes which find a shelter in the mountains and forests. A goat is almost a rarity throughout the island, except in Wales, where they approach somewhat to a savage nature: the Welsh take great delight in hunting them; they prefer the he-goats as having the best fat and skin: the horns of this animal are sometimes three feet in length. Most of the domestic animals of Scotland are small, but their flesh is savoury and highly esteemed. Sheep pasture undisturbed upon the hills of the Orkneys, and, though exposed much to the inclemency of the weather, their wool is valuable. The Orkneys abound in all sorts of birds: eagles make such havoc in these islands, that, according to a law of the country, a person who kills one is entitled to receive a hen from every family of the parish in which the eagle is killed. The steep rocks of the little islands of *Priestholm* opposite the eastern point of Anglesey, are the resort of vast numbers of seafowl. The diver rears a brood of young in the rabbits' burrows: at the northern extremity of the island is one which derives its name from the numbers of seals or sea-calves in the neighbourhood. Shoals of herring frequent the Hebrides, the bays on the western

coast of Scotland and the Orkneys. In the seas around these last islands are often seen whales and shoals of porpoises: ambergrease is also found here.

Such are the chief particulars in the animal kingdom which distinguish the productions of the British Isles. It will not be necessary to praise the beauty, swiftness, and other excellencies of the British horses, their valuable breeds of oxen, their sheep with long fleeces, their mastiffs and hounds, the Scotch *colley*, that valuable shepherd's dog; the strength and courage of their fighting cocks, which excite the interest and cupidity of the English, as the *corrida* and bull-fight are the delight of the Spaniards. Our physical description shall close with an enumeration of the natural productions throughout the United Kingdom.

Mineral Kingdom.

Lead	300,000	quintals
Copper	150,000	"
Tin	100,000	"
Iron	5,500,000	"
Coal	180,000,000	"
Salt	3,630,000	"

Vegetable Kingdom. — Agriculture.

Superficies in forests	1,482,000	acres
Meadows and pastures	30,000,000	"
Corn fields	67,500,000	"
Crop of grain	262,500,000	bushels

Animal Kingdom.

Horses and mules	1,900,000
Horned cattle	10,500,000
Sheep	44,100,000
Swine	5,250,000

BOOK CLIII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Historical and Topographical Description of the British Islands.

SECTION I. ENGLAND AND WALES.

BOOK CLIII.

The division of the British islands into three kingdoms, a division long consecrated by time and use, warns us not to confound in a single sketch, what relates to their history, their industry, and their topographical features. We shall begin with the Kingdom of England: next, Scotland and her dependent islands will pass in review before us: after these we shall cast a look of interest upon Ireland, a distinct kingdom, but different from the two others in industry, intelligence, and religion: a country whose recent emancipation has restored those rights, which religious intolerance so long withheld from her, and who now, thanks to the spirit of the age, is called henceforth to the enjoyment of equal advantages with her sister kingdoms. We shall then finish our picture of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, with a few reflections on the history of the British government, on the wonderful prosperity, and the manners of the English nation in general.

Boundaries of England.

The space comprised between the Tweed, the southern range of the Cheviot hills and the Solway frith on the north, and the British Channel on the south, constitutes the Kingdom of England and the Principality of Wales.

Origin of the name of Britain.

Vain endeavours have been made to throw light upon the origin of the names *Britannia* and *Albion*, which the ancients

bestowed upon the island of Great Britain, but which belong more properly to the southern part, inasmuch as they named the northern extremity *Caledonia*. Some authors derive *Britannia* from a Celtic word signifying *colour*, because the earliest inhabitants of this country painted their bodies: others, taking into view the known fact, that the Phenicians traded to these parts for tin, pretend that the original name of the island was *Bratanac*, signifying in the Phenician language, *land of tin*. The name of Albion is owing to the whiteness of the shores. The inhabitants of this island were probably of Celtic origin: the pictures drawn of them by Cæsar and Tacitus, recall to our mind the savages of North America. They were ignorant of clothing: those of the southern coasts were clad only in the hides of animals: all of them painted their bodies blue, and by a sort of tattooing, marked their limbs with the figures of animals. Long flaxen locks covered their shoulders: their religion forbade them to eat fish or fowl. Their towns were nothing but rude assemblages of huts surrounded with fields, and defended by slight ramparts of earth and trunks of trees, in the manner of the Celts of Gaul. They were fierce, courageous, and greedy of carnage in battle. When the southern part of Britain was brought under Roman subjection, after a struggle which lasted from the invasion of Julius Cæsar till the arrival of Agricola, a period of 130 years, the whole island was distributed into 17 petty states, each having a chief with the title of king. The Romans were not able to subdue Caledonia, and as a defence against the Caledonians, Adrian built a wall from the mouth of the *Tinna* or Tweed to Solway frith, then called *Ituna Æstuarium*: this wall marks the northern limit of the present Kingdom of England. Severus, however, pushed his conquests as far as the frith of Forth, the *Bodra Æstuarium* of the Romans, and built a second wall from the bottom of the frith to the mouth of the *Clota*, now the Clyde. After the death of this prince, the Roman part of Britain was divided into five provinces. 1st, *Britannia prima*. 2d, *Britannia secunda*, containing the early conquests of the Romans from the channel to the mouth of the Stour. 3d, *Flavia Cæsariensis*, comprising all the territory in the east, from the Stour to

Ancient Inhabitants.

BOOK CLIII.

the mouth of the Humber, and extending west as far as Wales. 4th, *Maxima Cæsariensis*, comprising the counties of York and Lancaster. 5th, *Valencia*, a province formed out of the territory conquered from the Caledonians. In the beginning of the fifth century the Romans were obliged to leave the island to oppose the invasions of the barbarians in Gaul: in this manner the *Britanni* were thrown upon their own resources.

They chose for a king, Vortigern, one of their own nation: this chief in order to resist the Caledonians, persuaded the Britons to call over the Saxons as allies. The sovereignty of England then became divided between Vortigern and Hengist the Saxon leader. The success of this adventurer induced the *Angli*, the *Jutes* and other people from the north, to seek their fortune in Great Britain. Hardly were the inhabitants of Scotland driven back within their own limits, when the new comers turned their arms against the Britons, who found no safety but among the mountains of Wales and Cornwall, and that part of France which from this time bore the name of *Bretagne* or *Brittany*. The contemporary revolutions of the Roman empire were acted over on a small scale in Great Britain; the principal chiefs of the invaders took each one, the title of King, and there successively arose seven Kingdoms, namely, *Kent*, *Sussex*, *East Anglia*, *Wessex*, *Northumberland*, *Essex* and *Mercia*; all were united in a political association which was occasionally disturbed, but continued to the 9th century. During the existence of this confederacy which bears the name of the *Heptarchy*, the *Angles* maintained almost exclusively the first rank, and this circumstance probably induce Egbert the king of Wessex, who united the whole under his sceptre, to bestow upon the country the name of *Angle Land*, which the more modern English changed to *England*, and the French to *Angleterre*. Alfred was the first who divided the kingdom into counties: it did not then include the principality of Wales.

Invasion of the Angli, Jutes, &c.

Heptarchy

Wales.

This small territory was originally inhabited by the *Ordovices* and the *Silures*, who were subdued by the Romans. When the Britons fled from the Saxons into this country, they established within its limits, which contain

about a thousand square leagues, six separate kingdoms, which continued till 843, when Roderic the Great, assumed dominion over the whole. His three sons divided this kingdom into three portions; these were soon reduced to two, which are to this day distinguished as North and South Wales. The sovereignty of the kingdom expired with *Llewellyn ap Gryffith*, who was defeated and slain by Edward I, in 1285. The principality was united to England, and Edward conferred upon his son the title of *Prince of Wales*, a title which the oldest sons of the kings of England have continued to bear to the present day. It was not however till the 16th century, under the reign of Henry VIII, that the whole country was brought under the English laws. Its physical character, the mountains which oppose an obstacle to the progress of an enemy, and the language and manners of the people, all conspired to delay a perfect union. After this event the *kumbre* or *gaelic*, a dialect of the Celtic, fell slowly into disuse: at present it exists only among the mountainous regions.

Political division of England.

England proper is divided into 40 shires or counties, without including Wales, which contains 12. Before passing these in review, we will consider in their topographical relation, the *Anglo-Norman Islands*, near the French coast.

Anglo Norman Islands.

These islands constitute the remnant of the British dominion over the ancient dutchy of Normandy. The inhabitants enjoy perfect liberty: they are under their own laws, which are nothing more than the ancient Norman customs, but an appeal lies from their courts to the king in council. The French is the only language used in their courts: no act of parliament has the force of a law in these Islands, before it has received the approbation of the magistrates. The inhabitants are exempt from naval and military service: their commerce is unshackled: and a free port allows them an open commerce even in time of war with the enemies of Great Britain. This port is *St Helier* in the isle of *Jersey*, a little town containing with St Aubin and 12 villages or parishes, a population of 29,000 souls. The churches are the only remarkable edifices in the island, and are fine Gothic structures. The shores of Jersey are defended by towers, batteries, and a strong garrison.

Jersey.

BOOK CLIII.

Guernsey.

Guernsey is smaller and less populous; its inhabitants are 21,000: the Catholics are not very numerous: different sects of Protestants have each their church. *St Pierre*, the only town which the island contains, is the seat of the courts of justice: this town consists of a single street rather narrow, but well built: the harbour is commodious. It is defended from the waves by two strong piers, and from enemies by a citadel called *Chateau Cornet*, which stands upon a steep rock surrounded by the sea, and is only accessible at low water by a narrow passage. A town — or rather from the rudeness of its buildings — a village, containing 1000 inhabitants, occupies the centre of the little island of *Alderney*.

Alderney.

Scilly Islands.

Among the *Scilly Islands* we shall mention only *St Mary*, which contains the small town of *Heugton* with a prison, and *Tresco* where the little town of *Dolphin* has nothing more worthy of attention than the preceding. These islands belong to the county of *Cornwall*, a district formerly inhabited by the *Dumnonei*. A relic of this Celtic people exists in the language of the inhabitants of this country: less than a century ago the *Cornish*, a *Kumbre* dialect, was the only language spoken here. Another remarkable object of the same origin will be found in the druidical monuments, some of which are immense blocks of granite with rounded surfaces, resting upon other blocks in such perfect equilibrium that a slight exertion will communicate to them a motion which endures for a surprising length of time. One of these stones is computed to weigh upwards of 100 tons.

Cornwall.

Industry.

Agriculture has made little progress in this arid and hilly region, which contains but a small number of fertile valleys: but its fisheries which afford occupation to above 12,000 individuals, and produce annually 220,000 dollars, and its mines of copper and tin yielding a product of near 3,000,000 dollars, may give an idea of the riches of the county. These two great branches of revenue seem to enjoy a monopoly of the industry of Cornwall, yet there are several paper mills upon the streams about *Hayle*, a village noted for its manufactories. Carpets are made at *Truro*, and coarse woollens at *Callington*, *Launceston*, *St Austel*, *Bodmin*, and some other places.

Falmouth.

In point of commerce and maritime affairs *Falmouth* is the most important place in the county. Two centuries ago, this town was only a cluster of wretched huts, the dwellings of fishermen. But its position outside the channel enabling ships to sail to the south of Europe and avoid the Bay of Biscay; and the establishment of packets between this port and the Spanish peninsula, the West Indies and other parts of the world, have made it a town of importance. The harbour seems to occupy the spot named by Ptolemy *Cenionis Ostium*. At the entrance is a rock called *Black Rock*, believed to be the spot where the Phenicians landed to purchase tin of the natives: the bay of Falmouth is capable of sheltering the whole British navy. The *Cenio* mentioned by the Greek geographer, is the river *Fal*, which gives name to the town. The town consists principally of one long, well built street; and with the harbour, is defended by two forts, each situated on a point, and constructed by Henry VIII: one of these, called *Pendennis Castle*, was considerably enlarged by Elizabeth. It made a long resistance to the army of Cromwell, and the works of the besiegers may be still seen in the neighborhood.

Devonshire.

Devonshire lies east of the preceding. It is washed by the Bristol channel on the N. and the English channel on the S. The *Tamar* and *Ex* are its principal rivers: the former constitutes the western limit, and flows into the bay of Plymouth: the latter rises in a sterile and marshy tract called *Ex-moor*: it receives numerous streams and runs into the English channel at Exmouth. In traversing Devonshire we are struck with the variety of the surface and soil: the valley of *Exeter*, and the country from the Teign to the mouth of the Tamar, are unsurpassed in fertility and wealth: they furnish London with a fine breed of long-horned cattle, celebrated for the delicacy of their flesh. The southern coast is under excellent cultivation, and offers the most charming scenery; while along the banks of the Tamar, a plain seven leagues long, and five wide, offers a spectacle of the most revolting sterility. This plain, which from the most ancient period has borne the name of the *Forest* of *Dartmoor*, indicating that it was once covered with trees, presents to the view but tracts of marsh formed by

Dartmoor.

BOOK CLIII.

the river *Dart*, immense blocks of granite heaped together in confusion, peat-bogs, furnishing the only fuel of the inhabitants, and heaths which serve for pasture to flocks of sheep, lean, dwarfish, and often decimated by the rot. The inhabitants of this savage territory are called *Moormen*, and are considered the most ignorant and brutish people in all the west of England. For many years, efforts have been made with some success to civilize them, and render the country susceptible of tillage. In the midst of this marshy and barren spot, more than 7000 French and American prisoners were confined in a huge prison, which since the return of peace has been converted into an agricultural establishment for the poor.

Plymouth.

In the southern part of the shire, *Plymouth*, formerly called *Devonport*, is one of the most flourishing towns, and has one of the busiest harbours and most important naval docks in the kingdom. An immense breakwater which defends the harbour from the fury of the waves, and the Eddystone lighthouse standing in the midst of the sea, are constructions worthy of a great nation.

The ancient people of Devonshire were the same with those of Cornwall: their principal town was *Isex*, the *Isca Dumnoniorum* of the Itinerary of Antonine, called afterwards *Excester*, and now *Exeter*. These various names indicate its position upon the river Ex. Formerly it contained such a number of convents as to gain the appellation of *Monks-town*. The place is well built: its four principal streets unite at a point called *Carfax*, from two Norman words signifying *four roads*. The southern part of the town is commanded by an ancient castle ascribed to the West Saxons, although its name of *Rougemont* implies rather a Norman origin. One of the finest buildings in Exeter is the Insane Hospital, remarkable for its size as well as neatness. The bridge across the Ex would make a good appearance if it were not in a Gothic and absurd manner, encumbered with a number of houses and a church which cover a great portion of the bridge, interrupt the circulation of the air, and spoil the prospect. An arm of the sea washed the town walls before one of the earls of Devon ruined the navigation of it by dykes and sluices. The present harbour

was constructed in 1697: it will not admit vessels of above 150 tons.

Dorsetshire.

Following our course east, we come to *Dorsetshire*, a territory justly named the *garden of England*. The plains of the south, formerly covered with forests, are changed into fertile fields: a range of chalky hills extends from east to west. Upon their sides, and on the downs upon the coast, herds of fine cattle are fed: Dorsetshire is estimated to contain 800,000 sheep, and exports annually 150,000. From the central parts to the eastern limit are vast heaths, which in this quarter do not give a high idea of the value of the country, but the sterility of this portion is amply compensated by the richness of the valleys in the southwest. The sort of peninsula formed by the river Frome and the sea, improperly called the *Isle of Purbeck*, is celebrated for its quarries, from which are taken stones for paving, and others susceptible of a polish equal to marble: much of this stone is used in the country, but another peninsula extending into the sea with the name of the *Isle of Portland*, furnishes excellent freestone, which is exported in vast quantities to London.

Isle of Purbeck.

Isle of Portland.

Dorchester.

Dorchester, situated upon an eminence on the Frome, is the shire town, and is of an ancient date. In former times the *Durobrigæ* gave it the name of *Durnovaria*, signifying *passage of the river*: the Romans called it *Durnium*, and surrounded it with a wall, the direction of which may still be seen. Several military roads which traverse the country, unite in this spot. The town is well built of hewn stone, with neat and well-paved streets, excellently lighted at night. The most remarkable object within its limits is a central prison, containing but 88 prisoners, but comprising also a penitentiary and house of correction.

Somersetshire.

Somersetshire is famous for its cider: two cities here attract our notice. *Wells* receives its name from the wells of St Andrew, and is a neat and well built place: its cathedral is a fine specimen of the architecture of the 13th century.

Bath.

Bath, one of the most elegant cities in the kingdom, contains many beautiful promenades, fine buildings, and a magnificent cathedral: it has long been a famous resort for strangers, and fashionable English, drawn hither by the virtues

BOOK CLIII.

of its mineral waters; and that immense crowd of rich idlers so numerous in England, who seek in the dissipation of this spot a relief from the ennui which preys upon the unemployed. Bath is a town of mere amusement, and its trade is maintained solely by the consumption which this produces. It was founded in the time of the Romans, who in allusion to the efficacy and warmth of its waters, gave it the name of *Aquæ Solis:* the vestiges of some of their noble edifices are yet to be seen, among others the remains of a temple dedicated by Agricola to Minerva. A Roman way traverses this whole shire, the inhabitants of which were called *Belgæ.*

The land in this quarter offers frequently the contrast of barren plains and fertile valleys. Travelling over it lengthwise, we pass the banks of the Taunton, where the soil, if we may believe the inhabitants, has no need of manure, and draws its fertility from the mere action of the sun's rays; we then behold before us the forest of *Exmoor,* the melancholy nakedness of which is enlivened only by a few deer. *Bristol,* on the Avon, which traverses this city after leaving Bath, is divided by it into two parts. That on the left bank belongs to Somersetshire; that on the right to Gloucestershire. This city, irregularly built, consists of narrow streets and lofty houses: the handsomest buildings are in the suburbs. Still it has some fine edifices, and two public squares, one of which, Queen Square, is ornamented with an equestrian statue of William III. Bristol is thought to have existed four centuries before the Christian era. The Avon, which falls into the British Channel three miles below the city, is navigable through that extent for the largest ships: consequently the commerce of this place is large, and the population numerous. In the neighbourhood are some mineral springs: those most frequented are *Clifton* and *Hot Wells.* It is said that during the earthquake at Lisbon, the country here offered a singular phenomenon: the river flowed back, the water of a well in the village of Kingswood turned black as ink, and the springs at *Hot Wells* were agitated and turned of a reddish colour.*

Forest of Exmoor.

Bristol.

Gloucestershire.

* See a Topographical Dictionary of the United Kingdom, by B. P. Capper. Art. Bristol.

Gloucester.

North of Bristol is *Gloucester*, built of brick and wood, on the left bank of the Severn: small vessels only can come up to the town at high water. Its cathedral, begun in 1047, is a handsome structure, 420 feet long and 144 wide: it is supported by pillars of enormous size, which, after a project had been started to shave them down to a smaller diameter, were discovered to be hollow. We leave it to architects to decide upon the motive for this singular construction. The air of this city is keen and salubrious, a fact well attested by the freshness visible in the complexion of the people. The females are noted for their beauty. The whole population is employed in the wool trade and the rope and pin manufactory. These last articles are exported weekly to London, in quantities valued at 92,500 dollars, amounting in value yearly to 4,810,000 dollars. The date of the foundation of Gloucester is unknown. The ancient Britons named it *Caer Clovi*, and the Romans establishing a colony here called it *Clevum* or *Glebon:* under the Saxons it took the name of *Gleaucestre*, from the British words *glaw*, handsome, and *caer*, city. Before dismissing it we must say something respecting the shire of which it is the capital.

Pin Manufactory.

Appearance and wealth of the country.

This territory is divided by nature into three districts: the eastern, and largest, is called *Cotswold:* its soil has little fertility, but here and there are found extensive pastures with a short, fine grass, affording a subsistence to numerous flocks of sheep, which are celebrated for the beauty of their wool. The central district is occupied by the valley watered by the Severn, a stream abounding in excellent salmon: the soil here is fertile, and the climate perhaps the mildest in Great Britain. Cattle here find excellent pasturage, and there are annually made 200,000 quintals of cheese. The Stroud canal, which connects the Severn with the Thames, opens a direct communication between this district and all parts of the kingdom. The western and smallest district, is broken into valleys and hills, and contains the forest of *Dean*, which in former times supplied timber for the British navy, and at present exhibits cultivated fields and populous villages. In this district a much greater amount of fuel is taken from the bowels of the earth than was ever borne upon the surface: 150 coal pits furnish am-

BOOK CLIII.

ply sufficient for the inhabitants and their manufactures. The orchards in the valley of the Severn and the forest of Dean, supply the fabrication of a liquor demanded by the necessities of the poor and the intemperance of the rich: excellent cider is produced here, and a sparkling perry, which forms the substance of a great part of the champagne wine sold in London. All this territory was anciently peopled by the *Dobuni*. In many spots are to be seen traces of Roman camps.

Wiltshire.

South of Gloucestershire is a division which we shall pass rapidly over. *Wiltshire* has little that can interest us: the northern parts distract our attention by the spectacle of masses of broken stone thrown confusedly together. In the borough of *Cricklade*, and that of *Malmesbury*, the home of many learned men, and of the celebrated Hobbes, there is nothing but a ferruginous soil; the manufacture of cheese is the chief occupation of the people. The cheese of Wiltshire is more highly esteemed than that of Gloucester. Next we come to the chalky hills called Marlborough Downs, from the name of the borough of Marlborough on the left bank of the Kennet. The coldness of these parts is proverbial, notwithstanding 500,000 sheep find here in summer, abundant food. A breed of white hogs with long ears, very common in France, but differing from all other English swine, is raised here, and the lard of Wiltshire is reputed excellent. In the south we meet with the cultivated plains of *Salisbury*; extending to the north and south of this city, the capital of Wiltshire. Before dismissing this city we may remark that it is situated in a pleasant valley watered by the Avon; that it is regularly built, and has a handsome cathedral; with a Gothic spire 400 feet in altitude, esteemed the tallest in the kingdom.

Salisbury.

Hampshire.

Hampshire, an agricultural as well as commercial district, is rich in cornfields and forests, and traversed by canals which unite the Wye and Thames, and open a communication between Winchester, Salisbury and other places: it is also watered by several navigable streams of considerable length, and with commodious harbours at their mouths. The chief ports are Yarmouth and Portsmouth: the mention of the former apprizes the reader that the Isle of Wight belongs to Hampshire.

Winchester, the capital of this division, is situated nearly in the centre. It is believed to have been founded by the *Belgæ*, who, with the *Regni*, dwelt in this part of Great Britain. The ancient Britons called it *Cær Gwent;* under the Saxons it was the residence of several kings. In spite of its large clean streets, this city has an antiquated appearance; its old castle is ascribed to the valiant Arthur. During the civil wars it was almost entirely demolished by the parliamentary soldiers, but the great hall still remains: here the assizes are held, and here is shown the celebrated round table with the names of Arthur's noble companions. The river Itchin, after leaving Winchester, joins the Test at *Southampton*, at the bottom of a deep bay where they both meet the sea. This city has a pleasant situation and considerable commerce: it is enlivened by the visits of strangers who come to bathe in the sea, or drink at a chalybeate spring: a steam packet passes every day to Havre.

Winchester.

Southampton.

On an island, joined to the main land by a bridge, stands *Portsmouth*, at once a borough, city and seaport, and worthy of that admiration excited by the view of the great naval establishments of England. Enlarged and defended by new works at almost every reign from Elizabeth to the present time, it may be considered as impregnable both by sea and land. Its magazines and dock yards are the finest and most perfect that exist: more than 4000 workmen are employed in them. Most of the machinery at the arsenal, and particularly that for making blocks, is driven by steam. This noble establishment contains the Royal Naval College, and the School of Naval Architecture. Around the docks and yards, the houses for the residence of the principal officers on duty, form almost a town by themselves. The harbour surpasses all others in the kingdom for size, depth, and safety. The spacious road of *Spithead*, which separates it from the Isle of Wight, affords it the additional advantage of sheltering above 1000 ships of the line. The town is little worthy the importance of the harbour: it is large and populous, but the streets are dark and narrow.

Portsmouth.

Yarmouth, in the Isle of Wight, has its name from the *Yare*, a little stream, which, at its mouth forms a harbour, fre-

Yarmouth.

BOOK CLIII.

quented by many vessels employed in the herring and mackerel fishery.

Sussex.

Parts of the forest which once covered the whole of *Sussex*, still remain, and afford excellent timber for the English navy. The necessity of preserving these woods has caused the forges that were carried on with charcoal, to be abandoned, and the rich iron mines here are no longer wrought. This metal indeed is manufactured in hardly any part of England except where mineral coal is found. Foreigners who visit Sussex, should be careful not to make a long stay: the air is tolerably healthy in the interior, but upon the coast the unacclimated visiter is often seized with dangerous fevers. We shall hasten over its principal towns, which are all at a little distance from the shore of the channel. *Chichester*, the capital, is well built, but surrounded with ruinated walls. Its four principal streets cross each other at right angles: the harbour, which owes its safety to to the depth of the bay, has a yard for building merchant ships. *Arundel*, once a fortified place, has upon the Arun a harbour where small vessels load with spars. *Lewes*, a parliamentary borough, on the banks of the Ouse, is important for its cannon foundries. *Hastings* is celebrated for the landing of William the Conqueror, and the victory won by him under its walls over Harold, king of England, who here lost his crown and life.

Chichester. Arundel. Lewes. Hastings.

Brighton.

The little harbour of *Brighton* or *Brighthelmstone*, witnessed after the battle of Worcester in 1651, the embarkation of Charles II, for France. By a regular line of packets, this town maintains a constant communication with Dieppe, from which it is distant 29 leagues. Brighton is a large and handsome town, and was formerly during summer, the favourite residence of George IV, at that time Prince of Wales: an elegant mansion, called the *Marine Pavilion*, erected by him, stands in a charming situation. Viewed from the sea this town rises upon the sight like an amphitheatre and shows to admirable effect. The neighborhood displays much fine scenery, and during the bathing season, has vast numbers of visiters: the harbour was once important, but it is now nearly filled up, and is frequented only by fishermen and coasters.

We now come to that county which is best known to the inhabitants of the continent, lying on the road from Calais to London. *Kent* is more of an agricultural than a manufacturing district: half of its surface is arable land; a third pasture, and the remainder consisting of the southern portion called the *Weald*, woods and marshes. The environs of *Faversham* produce the best hops. Many interesting places are comprised within this county.

Kent.

Dover is the ancient *Dubris* of the Romans, and its castle situated upon a steep rock, is thought to be a work of theirs. The Saxons gave it the name of *Dovre*. Near the sea shore, a few leagues west of the town, is to be seen in the church of *Hythe*, a vault containing bones, the relics of a great battle fought in the 5th century between the Britons and the Danes. A canal, 137 feet in width and 20 deep, furnished with an epaulement, has been dug here as a defence against the landing of an enemy: this is the largest in the country. The shire town is *Canterbury*, the *Durovernum* of the Romans, and by the Britons called *Caer-Kent*. Its ancient consequence is shown by the great military roads leading to Dover and Lymne, and by other numerous relics of antiquity: it is situated in a valley watered by the *Stour* which here forms several branches: It is the oldest archbishopric of the kingdom. In the 11th century William Rufus made a grant of it to his archbishops. The murder of Thomas a Becket, one of these, in 1170 was a fortunate occurrence for this place: Becket was canonized, and the offerings brought to his tomb by pilgrims, nobles and kings were so great as to cover the whole church with splendid ornaments. Henry VIII, who notwithstanding his religious controversies, possessed more avarice than intelligence or virtue, seized the treasures and burnt the bones of the Saint to ashes. In the ecclesiastical organization which followed the overthrow of the papal power in England, the Archbishop of Canterbury preserved the title of Primate of England added to that of first Peer of the realm: he has precedence of all the Dukes who are not of the blood royal, and of all the officers of state. At the coronation of the king, it is he who places the crown upon the royal head; and wherever the court sits, the king and queen are his pa-

Dover.

Canterbury.

BOOK CLIII.

rishioners. The cathedral had been many times destroyed by fire, when in 1714 that structure was commenced which remains at present; it was finished in the beginning of the 15th century under Henry V. Cromwell turned it into a stable for his cavalry, but after the restoration it was carefully repaired. Its shape is that of a Greek cross: the portal and oriel are the finest in England.

Cathedral.

The largest river in this county, without reckoning the Thames which bounds it on the north, is the *Medway*, which flows into the Thames near its embouchure between the isles of Sheppey and Grain, a few leagues below *Rochester*, a town with a beautiful stone bridge and magnificent cathedral. In the vicinity is *Chatham* which may be considered as one of its suburbs: this place is remarkable for its docks where vessels of the largest size are constructed, and its magazines and immense buildings which are alone sufficient to convey an idea of the naval power of England. The town although founded by Charles II, has none of the regularity of new cities. Its fortifications are sufficient to prevent another Ruyter from burning the place and carrying off the ships. In a narrow spot on the bank of the Thames, it is impossible to avoid being struck with admiration at the sight of the great arsenal of *Woolwich*, its magnificent artillery barracks, and its fine naval school built in the gothic style and containing a canal and basin for the exhibition of naval manœuvres. At Greenwich is to be seen the splendid Marine Hospital established in the palace of Charles II, and the Observatory, from which the British astronomers compute their meridian.

Rochester.

Chatham.

Woolwich.

Deptford.

At *Deptford* are extensive magazines for the provisioning of ships, and the dock yards in which Peter the Great laboured.

Ancient Inhabitants.

Kent has retained the name of the people that inhabited the county at the landing of Julius Cæsar; these were the *Cantii*: their territory formed four petty kingdoms: under the Heptarchy these were united into one: the Saxon kings held their court at Canterbury. After the Norman conquest, the inhabitants retained their ancient privileges, the chief of which were an entire exemption from vassalage, and the custom of *gavelkind*, or the equal division of land

among children at the death of the father. Few of the English counties contain more numerous antiquities, such as castles, and the gothic dwellings of the nobility of the middle ages.

Middlesex.

The lively verdure and beautiful gardens which border the Thames, from the sea to the great capital of England, and the busy scenes every where presented by the river, form one of the noblest spectacles ever exhibited. Crowds of vessels passing each other up and down the stream; an immense forest of masts, which strikes the view before reaching the city: wagons and carriages innumerable rolling along the roads, all announce the capital of a mighty empire, the most populous city of Europe, and the greatest commercial mart in the world: such is *London*. A little arithmetic will establish these assertions, which might otherwise appear exaggerated. The loading and unloading of vessels employ annually at London 3000 lighters, 8000 seamen, and 4000 porters. The average number of vessels moored at once in the docks and canals, and at the wharves of the Thames, is 15,000. More than 900 steamboats arrive and depart in the course of a year. The annual value of the goods laden and unladen, amounts to 70 millions sterling: this immense sum is the result of foreign commerce. The interior trade employs 4000 wagons and other vehicles, transporting nearly 50 millions sterling value of merchandize: add to this, 10 millions for cattle and other property, transported by different channels: 1500 carriages a day leaving the city at stated hours, to say nothing of the post, and there results a total of 130 millions sterling, the amount of the annual commerce of London.*

London.

Commerce of London.

History of London.

London existed previous to the Christian era. According to Tacitus, it was in his time the chief commercial town in Britain. The Romans named it *Londinium*. The *Trinobantes*, the *Atrebates*, and other British tribes called it *Lundayn*. Under the Saxon dominion it received the names of *Londenceaster*, *Lunden Byrig*, *Lunden Wye*, and finally that of *London*. The history of its growth, and of the privileges which it obtained, is not without interest. In the sixth cen-

* Capper's Topographical Dictionary.

BOOK CLIII.

tury it was the capital of the kingdom of Essex or the east Saxons; under Alfred it became the metropolis of all England, and its rights and immunities were confirmed by William the Conqueror. Henry I, in extending its jurisdiction over the county of Middlesex, granted the city the privilege of choosing from its own citizens a sheriff and judge, and reserved to himself the right of nominating the *port reeve* or mayor: but at the death of this monarch the Londoners purchased the right of choosing their own magistrates. Finally, under Richard I, the municipal constitution of the city took the form, which, with a few modifications, it wears at the present day. In the beginning of the reign of King John, the chief magistrate changed his title of *custos* and bailiff for that of mayor. The city was despoiled of its charter by Henry III, and obliged to purchase a new one. In the reign of Edward I, it was divided into 24 *wards*, each having at its head an alderman and councillors chosen by the citizens. Edward III added the southern bank of the Thames to the city, conferred upon the mayor the title of lord, and granted him the privilege of having a gold or silver mace borne before him. His successor, Richard II, took away the franchises of the city, and restored them only upon the payment of a sum of money. In 1416 the streets were for the first time lighted with lamps. In the 15th and 16th centuries London was invested with greater privileges than ever. After the sacrifices which it had made for the preservation of its liberties, the reign of Elizabeth formed a new era in the history of the city. This princess built the Exchange, and encouraged industry: the capital, to make a grateful return, furnished, during the war with Philip II, in 1588, an army of 10,000 men, 16 large ships, and four small vessels of war, all equipped and paid during the war. In 1615, the side walks of the chief streets, which till then had only a footing of pebbles, were paved anew with flag stones. Charles I, while he set himself in opposition to the liberties of England, confirmed by several charters, the privileges of the capital, and even granted it new ones. The zeal with which London embraced the revolutionary party is well known. In 1660 the same city was no less zealous in promoting the restoration of Charles II, who afterwards

Lighting of he streets.

showed a great readiness to extend its privileges. After the revolution of 1688, in which it had so large a share, London found no difficulty in obtaining from William and Mary a confirmation of its ancient rights. In the reign of Queen Anne the city was empowered to build 50 new churches. To the long reign of George III, it is indebted for many important establishments and improvements. This long series of privileges, which may be looked upon as so many concessions granted by arbitrary power to the spirit of liberty, is an effect of the progress of civilization. Let us observe, in passing, for it is a circumstance worthy of remark, that the judicial murder of Charles I, the Protectorate of Cromwell, the restoration of Charles II, the expulsion of James II, and the accession of William III, events so important in the history of London and of England, and which all happened within the space of 40 years, ought to take from the English the privilege of taxing the French people with *fickleness*.

Ravages of epidemical diseases.

London has been often laid waste by fires: and ten several times has it suffered the horrible ravages of epidemics.* The latest and most terrible of these is known by the name of the *great plague*. It occurred in 1666 and destroyed above 68,000 persons. Hardly had its ravages ceased, when, on a Sunday, the 2d of September 1666, a fire broke out in the city which aided by a violent east wind, raged uncontrolled for 4 days, and consumed 13,200 houses, 400 streets, St Paul's church and 86 others, 6 chapels, the Exchange, the Custom House, many hospitals and libraries, 4 prisons, 3 city gates, 4 stone bridges with the houses upon them, and a vast number of beautiful structures of every description. The loss of goods, furniture, &c, was estimated at 10,500,000 pounds sterling. The most remarkable circumstance attending this terrible conflagration is, that

Great fire.

* That of 1348 destroyed, it is said, 100,000 persons. That of 1461 was more terrible still. About the year 1487 the *sweating sickness* appeared first in London, and carried off an immense number. In 1500, the plague destroyed above 20,000 of the inhabitants. In 1518, the sweating sickness re-appeared and renewed its ravages. It returned a third time in 1528, and was so virulent that the immense numbers of its victims died in 5 or 6 hours after being seized. In 1603 a species of the plague destroyed more than 30,000 persons. The plague of 1625 killed more than 35,000.

BOOK CLIII.

only six persons perished in it. To preserve the memory of this misfortune, a magnificent column, 200 feet high, was erected upon a narrow spot of ground, and called the *London monument.*

Municipal organization.

London is divided into 26 wards, each ward being under the direction of an alderman elected by the liverymen in the assemblies called *wardmotes.* One of these magistrates is chosen annually at Michaelmas to be *Lord Mayor:* the two sheriffs and the chamberlain are also chosen annually by the liverymen: the *recorder,* who is generally an eminent lawyer, is chosen by the Lord Mayor and aldermen to assist them in legal matters; this magistrate makes all addresses in the name of the city, and when sitting upon the bench, the duty of pronouncing sentence upon criminals belongs to him. There are many other municipal officers, as a *coroner,* a *common sergeant,* a city attorney, a *city remembrancer* or keeper of the archives, &c. Those suburbs of London which pertain to the county of Middlesex, are under the jurisdiction of the justices of that county. The police of the city is confided to magistrates who hold their courts every day for the hearing of causes.

View of the city.

In taking a view of the city with the design of pointing out the chief edifices, it may be remarked that its form is altogether irregular: it extends parallel to the Thames, but lies more upon the right bank than on the left. Taking in *Westminster* and *Southwark,* its length is seven miles, and its greatest breadth 4, its narrowest 2. The streets are generally wide: few are so narrow as not to admit of two carriages abreast; many are sufficiently wide for 5 or 6: this is particularly the case in Westminster and at the west end, the residence of the nobility and the rich. The narrowest streets are in that part called *the city,* the central and oldest part of London. Here the chief business is transacted: the *east end* is also inhabited by shopkeepers, principally those connected with commerce. Here are immense timber yards, docks, stores and magazines. Southwark, which in point of jurisdiction belongs to the county of Surrey, has also many shops and stores, but abounds chiefly in manufactures of every kind. In the north are several new quarters which have been built within a few years, and

which connect the city with the villages that formerly stood at its gates.

Streets.

The uniformity in the appearance of the houses, nearly all being of three stories,* brick, and coated with stucco, the cleanliness of the streets, where filth is never allowed to accumulate, but removed by the dust-carts every morning; the side walks, and the brilliant illumination of the gas lights, bestow upon London a peculiar physiognomy. The handsomest streets are *Oxford Street, Piccadilly, Pall Mall, Portland Place, Haymarket Place,* and *Regent Street.* This last, for its length and the magnificence of its buildings, is without a rival in Europe. London is deficient in those noble walks, which, under the name of *Boulevards,* are so much admired at Paris, but it contains a great number of squares, generally of a rectangular shape, and with the centre enclosed: some of these are very large: *Grosvenor Square* is beyond comparison the handsomest, and comprises an area of six acres; in the centre is an equestrian statue of George II. The buildings around it are the most superb in all London. In the centre of *Portman Square* is an equestrian statue of George III, in the costume of Marcus Aurelius. In *Cavendish Square* is the statue of the Duke of Cumberland. In *Leicester Square* is another of George II. The largest square is that called *Lincoln's Inn Fields,* which occupies an area equal to the base of the great pyramid of Egypt.

Buildings.

London exhibits but few edifices worthy of its great size and wealth. We must notice, however, the *East India House,* containing a grand Asiatic Museum and a valuable library: the *Exchange,* a square building ornamented with porticoes: the *Bank,* an edifice of immense extent: *Somerset House,* containing the stamp office and the halls in which the Royal Society and the Antiquarians hold their meetings, and in which the yearly exhibitions of the products of human industry are displayed: the *British Museum,* remarkable for its large and valuable collections: *Westminster Hall,* in which the Parliament sits: the *Tower* on the

* That is, 4 stories as the enumeration would be in America. In England the first story is called the *ground floor;* the floor above this, the *first story.*

BOOK CLIII.

banks of the Thames, the residence of the kings of England for five centuries: it consists of several structures as, the lions' tower, where the menagerie is kept; the white tower, containing the naval and military arsenal, a collection of ancient armour, and the largest collection of arms in the world; added to these are the regalia of the kingdom.

Palaces.

St James's Palace is built of brick, and its architecture is without regularity or beauty: its outward appearance forms a strong contrast to the splendor of its apartments within, and with its destination of the royal residence, an honor which has belonged to it since 1695. It has become less worthy of our attention since a new palace has been erected for George IV, and his successors. The elegant architecture of this building renders it one of the finest edifices in London. The palace of *Whitehall*, a large square structure, the ancient residence of the kings, possesses no other interest than that connected with the memory of Charles I, who was beheaded directly at its doors.

Churches.

Among the 394 churches of London, there are three that deserve particular notice. *Westminster Abbey*, is esteemed one of the finest gothic structures in Europe: the magnificent chapel of Henry VII, newly repaired, contains the bodies of many royal princes: the other chapels are reserved for the monuments raised by England to the memory of her eminent citizens. *St Paul's Church* is the largest in the whole kingdom: it was designed by Sir Christopher Wren, upon the model of that of St Peter at Rome. The masterpiece of this celebrated architect however, is *St Stephen's Church*.

Bridges.

Of the six magnificent bridges across the Thames, the most remarkable for size and elegance is *Waterloo Bridge*, which is built of granite. *Southwark Bridge*, is of iron, and the central arch is admired as being one of the largest in the world. But an object which will excite the wonder of future generations is the *Tunnel*, a subterranean passage under the Thames admitting both foot passengers and carriages: this work has been retarded by immense difficulties, and is now at a stand, but there is every reason to expect its completion. The greatest city of the world will

be indebted to the genius of a Frenchman for an undertaking without a parallel among the ancients or moderns.

Public Walks.

The finest and most frequented public walks of London, are *Green Park, Hyde Park, St James's Park, and Regent's Park.* In this last there is erecting by private enterprise, an edifice destined to become one of the finest ornaments of the city: its enormous dimensions have already obtained for it the name of the *Colosseum:* it contains a covered promenade of great extent, and a circular building of such a size that the panorama of London, now painting there will occupy a superficies of 40,000 square feet, the largest picture ever painted. In the garden belonging to this edifice is a Swiss cottage, from which may be seen three cascades, the highest of sixty feet.

Newspapers.

The number of newspapers published in London yearly has been estimated at 15,500,000, or about 50,000 daily. There are eight Daily Morning, and six Daily Evening papers, with thirty-six others, weekly or twice or thrice a week.

Theatres.

London contains thirteen theatres, of which the chief, *Drury Lane, Covent Garden,* and *King's Theatre,* or the Italian Opera are among the finest in Europe. But London exceeds all other cities in the number and importance of her scientific and charitable institutions, of which the reader may judge by the following enumeration. There are sixteen schools of medicine, as many of law, and five of theology, eighteen public libraries, 300 elementary free schools, the Royal Academy of Sciences, the Society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures and commerce, the Society of Antiquaries, the Chemical Society, the Geological Society, the college of apothecaries who have a fine botanical garden, the Horticultural Society, the Statistical Society, the Palestine Society for improving the geography and natural history of Palestine, the African Society for prosecuting discoveries in that country, the Royal Asiatic Society, which publishes a series of valuable memoirs, the Bible Society which has distributed an immense number of bibles in 140 languages, and twenty other societies whose titles we omit, not to be tedious. There are 147 hospitals: one of them, *Guy's Hospital,* was named from Thomas Guy, a rich bookseller who

Establishments for Instruction.

Hospitals.

BOOK CLIII.

built it at an expense of £18,793, and left at his death the sum of £219,499, for its endowment: it has just received an additional endowment of £200,000. There are 1700 dispensaries where the poor may receive medical attention and medicines gratis, fourteen prisons, all large, healthy and regulated with an attention to physical and moral discipline that fairly shames most of the other prisons in Europe.

Religious Statistics.

The city is so intimately connected with the surrounding country in regard to many points in the number and classification of its inhabitants, that it is difficult to separate them. In their religious statistics we must include with the metropolis a portion of the neighbourhood. In what is usually denominated London and Middlesex, there were at the close of 1829, 233 Episcopal church livings. The number of Roman Catholic congregations was 21; of Presbyterians 15; of Quakers 12; of Baptists 57; of Wesleyan Methodists 59; of other Methodists 7; of Independents 91.

Number of houses, streets, and squares.

If the immorality of a city is always in a direct proportion to its population, the reader may imagine a capital comprising within an area of seven geographical leagues, more than 1,300,000 inhabitants, dwelling in 160,000 houses, which form 8,000 streets, 14 markets, and 70 squares. And it will readily be perceived that here must be an immense number of places of resort for persons who live by theft and debauchery. London is indeed a modern Babylon. According to the report of one of the magistrates* of this city, 20,000 individuals rise in the morning without knowing how they shall procure a subsistence through the day, or where they shall sleep at night. This number does not include the *chevaliers d'industrie*, or sharpers. Add to these 116,000 beggars, 115,000 thieves and pickpockets, who haunt the streets and prowl about crowds and houses, and 3000 receivers of stolen goods. The number of servants of both sexes out of place is 10,000. The women of the town amount to 30,000. As the number of places of ill reputation must bear a proportion to that of the rogues, it is computed that there are 5000 houses which serve as their resorts, and 43

People without occupation.

* Colquhoun, published in 1822.

gambling establishments where they lie in wait to trap the unwary. Such is the afflicting spectacle offered by the metropolis of a nation in which philanthropy exerts a wide influence and enjoys the aid of government. London has the unhappy pre-eminence of being infinitely beyond Paris in corruption of manners, even after making allowances for the difference of population. One will hardly be astonished after reading the above, to learn that there are sent annually to the prisons of London 8000 criminals, and that there are 14 courts of justice, and 10 police courts. Still it is a matter of surprise to a stranger, a Frenchman especially, to observe the facility, and absence of ostentation with which the police is regulated. There is no display here as at Paris, of that military apparatus which gives to the protection of order an appearance of the abuse of power. The watchmen to whom the public safety is confided, amount to a large number; by the aid of these persons the use of clocks by night may be dispensed with: they traverse the streets, calling the hour, discovering fires, shutting doors left open by negligence, and seizing such individuals as commit disorders: their only weapon is a stout cudgel. This rather pacific duty is sufficient to prevent the increase of crime, in spite of the frightful number of thieves and villains: still, it is too weak an establishment for such an immense city, where every tenth man is a rogue.*

Police.

We have thus taken a view of London from such a diversity of points as to offer ample subject for the admiration of the reader, yet a vast deal remains untold. London lies mostly in the county of *Middlesex*. In this county is the village of Hackney, situated on the Paddington canal; it has a population of 17,000 souls, and was the birthplace of the philanthropist Howard. *Hampton Court*, a village on the Thames, contains a royal castle, the splendid apartments and beautiful gardens of which are much admired. *Chelsea*, a village near Westminster, contains an elegant hospital for invalids, and an establishment for soldiers' children.

Environs of London.

* In 1829 a new system of police, much more efficient than the old, was established through the exertions of Mr Peel, then Secretary of State for the Home Department. The new police, however, is still far short of the martial and decisive character of the French gendarmerie system.

BOOK CLIII.

View of Middlesex.

The name of Middlesex reminds us of one of the political divisions of England in the time of the Heptarchy: it signifies the *Middle Saxons*, being situated between the Saxon territories of the east, west and south. This county which is traversed by the canal aforementioned, and by the junction canal which unites the little stream of the Coln with the Thames, is one of the richest in England: it produces hay sufficient for 30,000 horses, most of which belong to London.

Surrey.

The county of *Surrey*, to which belongs that part of London on the left bank of the Thames, is one of the least productive as regards agriculture, yet the gardens here cultivated for the supply of the markets of the metropolis, are estimated to amount to 4000 acres. Its chief branches of industry consist in vinegar yards, calico printing, paper-making, and manufactories of pottery and hats. Guilford is the chief town. Here are every year horse races. *Kew* on the Thames, was the constant residence of George III; the gardens of his palace contain one of the finest collections of plants in the world. Kew has 4000 inhabitants. South of this is *Richmond*, containing 6000, and an ancient royal residence, with a fine observatory. The remains of the poet Thomson repose in the church of this village, which is celebrated for its beautiful situation.

Guilford.

Berkshire.

The course of the Thames leads us to *Berkshire*, where we encounter first the town of *Windsor:* William the Conqueror built here a castle in which Edward III was born, and founded the order of the garter. George III established in Windsor park, an experimental farm for the improvement of agriculture, which had been in a backward state in these sterile parts. *Reading* occupies the station of a capital: it is a very ancient town, built of brick and well paved, and is situated at the confluence of the Kennet and Thames: it carries on a great trade with London. This district was peopled long before the time of the Romans by a colony of the *Atrebates*, a Gaulish tribe in the neighborhood of Arras: at every step here we are struck with objects which recall to the memory different historical epochs. Near *Wantage*,

Reading.

on the banks of a canal which divides from east to west the southern part of the district, is a quadrangular Roman camp. At *Lawrence Waltham* is a Roman fort. Near *Drenchworth* is the castle of *Cherbury*, supposed to be an ancient fortress of King Canute. But an object which will not fail to attract our attention is a range of chalky hills towards Oxford, upon which a bare space represents the gigantic figure of a horse upon the gallop, sculptured in the chalk: the valley here has taken the name of *White Horse Vale.* This sculpture, which covers a space of 13,000 square feet, is thought to commemorate a victory of Alfred, in 871, over the Danes, whose standard, it is well known, exhibited a white horse. Ever since this event the villagers of the neighborhood assemble annually upon St John's day, to 'scour the horse,' as they express it, that is, to clear away the grass which might disfigure its outlines: the remainder of the day is passed in diversion. At some distance from this spot is a collection of stones placed on end, like a burial ground of the Danish kings: many battles were certainly fought with the Danes in this neighborhood.

White Horse Vale.

Near the southern limit of the last mentioned county stands *Oxford*, in the midst of a plain, at the confluence of the Isis and Cherwell. This is one of the handsomest cities in Europe, and the most noted in all England for its university, the origin of which is lost in the uncertain traditions of the middle ages. Oxford is also noted for its manufactures and trade, which support more than 2000 families. It was once surrounded with walls, and defended by a castle, the remnants of which now serve as a prison. The *university* consists of twenty colleges, and five halls, or buildings for lodging the students, who amount in number to 4,600. In this abode of useful and serious study, frivolous amusements are not allowed an asylum: dramatic representations are forbidden, yet within these precincts the visiter beholds a magnificent theatre in the ancient style of architecture: this, however, is appropriated to the students, who on grand occasions are permitted to act Greek and Latin plays. This interesting city is indebted to the public spirit of a few wealthy individuals for many establishments highly valuable to the cause of education. The botanical garden was

Oxfordshire.

University.

BOOK CLIII.

founded in 1632, by Henry D'Anvers, Earl of Danby, and completed and endowed by Dr Sherrardy. The Ashmolean museum was given, in 1682, by Elias Ashmole, along with the manuscripts of his father-in-law Sir William Dugdale. The Clarendon press was established in 1712, by the profits of the sale of Lord Clarendon's *History of the Rebellion*, presented to the University by the author. The Radcliff library was founded in 1749, and its founder, whose name it bears, also bequeathed 30,000 pounds sterling for the construction of an observatory altogether worthy of Oxford. In a quadrangular building, containing in the upper story a fine gallery of paintings, is a hall appropriated to the famous collection of ancient inscriptions known as the *Arundelian Marbles*, which were gathered from the countries of Greece and Asia by the wealthy nobleman whose name they bear: they were presented to the university by his grandson the Duke of Norfolk: lastly, the Guild-hall of Oxford was erected partly at the expense of Thomas Rowney. We must not omit to mention that most precious of all the possessions of the university, the Bodleian library, which, next to the Vatican, is the largest collection of books in Europe. Oxford has in addition, fourteen parish churches, many religious edifices belonging to the dissenters, charity schools, and several benevolent institutions.

Oxfordshire is watered by more than 70 streams; of these the two principal, the Tam and Isis, unite and form the Thames. A canal extending from the capital to the northern extremity of the county, and a number of excellent roads, contribute to the prosperity of its trade. Its chief manufactures are blankets at *Witney*: plush at *Banbury*: gloves and cutlery at *Woodstock*. The poor are every where occupied in spinning or making lace. The banks of the streams afford good pasturage, and cattle form the principal agricultural wealth; but notwithstanding the celebrated forest of *Wichwood*, the want of fuel is felt in all parts. This territory was in ancient times inhabited by the *Dobuni*, and was included by the Romans in the province of *Flavia Cæsariensis*: during the Heptarchy it belonged to the kingdom of Mercia: it still exhibits two large Roman ways:

Manufacturing Towns.

one called *Icknild Street* leads to *Goring*, and the other, *Akeman Street*, to *Burford*. BOOK CLIII.

On the banks of the Thames, the *Chiltern Hills* are the first eminences which announce our arrival in *Buckinghamshire*. They are named from the Saxon word *chilt*, which signifies *chalk*, and are in fact composed of this substance. Their sides are covered with a wood which formerly, when more extensive, served as a shelter to robbers. Beyond these hills, the rich valley of Aylesbury, in the centre of the shire, is esteemed one of the most fertile in the kingdom: the inhabitants are mostly cultivators: lace making, for which they have acquired a great reputation, and plaiting straw hats, occupy nearly all the young females: another no less productive branch of industry is the manufacture of paper. There is but a single cotton mill, which is at *Amersham*. The wealth of the district may be known from this short description. Two places divide the rank and privilege of chief town: the most important is *Aylesbury*, in the valley of that name: in this town the assizes are held. It was a strong place in the time of the Saxons. William the Conqueror fixed his residence here, and portioned out the territory to divers of his retainers, on the condition of their furnishing three times a year, when he happened to be in the neighborhood, the litter or straw for the royal bedchamber, three eels in winter, and three goslings in summer: the luxury of the Norman prince may be understood by these items. *Buckingham* is a less populous town than the preceding: its name is derived from *boc* or *beech*, a tree formerly abundant in this place. Founded at an early period, it was surrounded with walls in 918, by Edward the Confessor, to defend it against the Danes. The ancient castle, which stood upon the hill dividing the city, has been replaced by a handsome church. Buckingham is one long crooked street, composed of houses built without regularity or elegance, and many of them with thatched roofs.

Buckinghamshire. Aylesbury. Buckingham.

Passing the junction canal, which is situated near the limits of Buckinghamshire and *Hertfordshire*, we arrive at *Hertford* or *Hartford*, near which the rivers Lea, Maran, Rib, and Quin, join to form an artificial bed 15 leagues in length: this is the *New River*, which runs into the Thames

Hertfordshire.

BOOK CLIII.

Hertford.

at London. Hertford, among the ancient inhabitants, was called *Durocobriva*, signifying *red ford* or *passage*, from the colour which distinguishes the sands of the Lea. There are some writers who assert, that Hartford is derived from the word *hart*, because this neighborhood abounded formerly in those animals: in proof of this derivation they adduce the arms of the city, which represent a deer crouching in the water; but a learned author* has remarked, that these arms, so far from proving any thing in the case, were themselves designed after the name of the city. The Saxon kings here made their residence. Alfred erected a castle to defend the city against the Danes, who pushed their excursions as far as *Ware*. These historical recollections constitute the most of what is interesting about Hartford. Previous to the Roman invasion, this county was inhabited by the *Cattieuchlani*, the *Trinobantes*, tribes extending to the seacoast, and by the *Cassii*: under the Saxons it was divided between the kingdom of Kent and that of Mercia. Vestiges of the Roman camps are still to be seen here and there. *Verulam*, or perhaps *Verulanum*, near *St Albans*, was their chief station. *Cheshunt* and *Braughin* occupy the sites of *Durolitum* and *Cæsaro Magus*.

General view of the county.

This county has no towns of great importance: industry and commerce labour under great restraints: the women are occupied in braiding straw: there is no manufactory worthy of mention except a few paper mills: the very soil is unproductive: without the use of soot, ashes and bones, as articles of manure, agriculture would afford little profit; but a skilful cultivation produces abundant crops of corn. The town of *Ware* makes a greater quantity of malt than any other town in the kingdom: but the circumstance to which a great part of the wealth of the county is owing, is the vicinity of the capital, and in particular the beautiful situations which it offers for the residence of the noblemen and wealthy merchants: few counties have within their limits a greater number of country seats.

Essex.

The county of *Essex* is a no less favourite resort for the rich citizens of London. The elegant country houses in this

* Capper. Topographical Dictionary.

quarter collect together the most brilliant society of the metropolis, who flee from its foggy and stagnant atmosphere on days of public celebrations. This county was comprised in the territory of the East Saxons, as its name indicates: the ocean limits it on the east. Among its most important towns are *Chelmsford* which has the rank of capital, *Colchester*, where woollens are manufactured, and *Harwich* at the mouth of the Stour, where a spacious harbour affords a frequent communication with Holland, and a great trade in oysters: these towns have nothing further noticeable. In taking leave of the county we may remark, that the soil and aspect of the surface is greatly diversified: the wheat raised here is esteemed in London the best in England: *Epping Forest* possesses no greater abundance of wood than Dartmoor, but has excellent grazing land, and is famous for its butter: fine meadow lands are spread along the shore, but these parts are so moist that fevers prevail among the inhabitants: the northern portion is the most healthy, and produces saffron, coriander, teazles, hops, and a great variety of market vegetables.

Chelmsford.

In crossing the *Stour* which separates Sussex from *Suffolk*, we come to a purer air, and the marshes along the sea give place to steep clayey shores, which being continually undermined by the rivers and inundations, sometimes fall into the water and sweep whole villages to the sea. The domestic animals of this quarter differ from those of the surrounding regions: the draught horse is of an excellent breed: the cows, mostly of the hornless kind, are celebrated for the abundance of their milk: the cheese of Suffolk indeed, passes for the worst in England, but this is owing to the method of manufacturing it. This county was once renowned for the industry of its inhabitants no less than for its agriculture, but for many years its trade has been on the decline, while the science of cultivation has made continual advances toward perfection. *Ipswich*, the chief town, situated on a slope extending to the bank of the Orwell, is a place of great antiquity, but much fallen from its ancient splendour. Many old edifices are here to be seen, ornamented with statues and sculptures. Being only three miles from the mouth of the river above mentioned, large ships

Suffolk.

Ipswich.

BOOK CLIII.

may come up to the town. Some are built here of 500 tons. Ipswich would be the only town of importance in Suffolk were it not that *Newmarket* claims a situation in this county as well as in *Cambridgeshire*. Newmarket is the most noted town in England for its horse races, which take place three times a year. Cambridgeshire is a part of the territory of the *Iceni*, a powerful nation who maintained a long war against the Romans in the reign of Nero, which is described by Tacitus.* This war was carried on with such fury on the part of the barbarians, that Boadicea, their queen, widow of Prasutagus, killed more than 80,000 of the Romans and their allies, destroyed two important towns, Camalodunum and Verulanum, and put to rout the ninth legion: but this heroine being defeated by P. Suetonius, poisoned herself to escape imprisonment. During the Heptarchy, this country belonged to the *East Angles*. Fevers are bred in its wide marshes: the towns and villages built upon small eminences in the midst of low and watery tracts resemble so many islands lifting up their roofs and steeples from distance to distance. Attempts have been made for some years to drain these marshy plains, and many fine pasturing tracts have been reclaimed from the water. Wheat, hemp and saffron are cultivated here: the calves which this territory furnishes for the London market, form one of the principal sources of the wealth of the county.

Cambridgeshire.

Cambridge.

On the *Cam*, a branch of the Ouse, stands Cambridge, the shire town, and the *Camboritum* of the Romans: the river divides it into two unequal parts, that on the south being the largest: the two united extend about a mile in length, and are half a mile in width: one of the city gates opens a passage through a Gothic edifice, serving for a jail, and which is the only remnant of a castle built by William the Conqueror. Cambridge contains 14 churches: its houses and streets are irregular, but it acquires an importance from 1300 families occupied in trade and manufactures, and 4700 individuals belonging to its university. This seminary inferior to Oxford only in the elegance of its buildings and its collections, was founded in 630 by Sigebert, king of the

University.

* Annales, Lib. 9 & 10.

East Saxons. In the beginning of the 13th century, Henry III built and endowed 18 of the colleges and 14 halls for the lodgings of the students. The vice chancellor of the university, who has the rank of one of the principal magistrates of the city, exercises the government of the college. Five leagues below Cambridge, the Cam passes by the city of *Ely* upon the island of the same name formed by the courses of several rivers. This city has a population of 5,000, and is considered very ancient. It contains nothing remarkable but its cathedral. The municipal government is in the hands of the bishop.

Ely.

On the right bank of the Ouse, and the left of the *Waveney*, a sort of peninsula washed by the sea on the north and east forms the county of *Norfolk*, a district which has long been celebrated for the improved state of its agriculture, the perfection of its instruments of husbandry, and its hardy race of sheep, small in size, but highly esteemed for their flesh, and whose fleeces supply the manufactures of Yorkshire. The barley which is raised here and made into malt, constitutes the chief exportation of Norfolk. The turkeys are remarkable for their size, and bring a considerable profit to the small farmers. One important article of culture peculiar to the county is carrots, chiefly for the feeding of cattle. This root is varied with clover and other feed in the preparation of fallow grounds for wheat. The uniformity of the surface which has only gentle swells, offers so little declivity to the course of several of the small rivers that they often stagnate in shallow pools called here *broads:* these collections of water abound in fish, wild ducks and various sorts of water fowl. The shores of this county are formed partly of steep clayey banks continually washing away by the ocean, and partly of flats covered with rounded flinty pebbles which form banks, around which the sand accumulates and is kept in a mass by the roots of aquatic plants. Behind these narrow downs are salt marshes of great extent, often submerged at high water. Off the coast are shoals which render navigation very dangerous. The largest extends along the coast of Yarmouth and forms at the mouth of the *Yare*, the road of this port, formerly one of the most important in England, and

Norfolk.

Cultivation.

Shores.

Yarmouth.

BOOK CLIII.

which still carries on a trade with the Baltic and Mediterranean besides annually despatching 150 vessels in the herring and mackerel fishery. Next to Yarmouth, *Lynn Regis* or King's Lynn situated at the embouchure of the Ouse upon the bay called *The Wash*, is the most considerable seaport. Following the course of the *Wentsum* a branch of the Yare, we come to *Norwich*, the chief town of the county. This is a city of more than 50,000 inhabitants, noted for its manufactures of crape, stuffs, bombazines and other mixed fabrics of woollen and silk. The fabrication of these cloths was introduced into the country during the twelfth century, in the reign of Henry I, by the Flemings settled in the little village of *Worstead*, a name still given to different woollen stuffs. In 1365 the magistrates of Norwich invited the manufacturers of the Low Countries to their city; such was the origin of the Norwich industry. The preparing and spinning of wool affords employment to the poor not only of this city, but of all the towns and villages in the county.

Lynn Regis.

Norwich.

Manufactures.

Norwich is first mentioned in the Saxon Chronicle in 1004, the date of its destruction by Sweno the Dane. It exhibits a few elegant structures, but the streets are narrow, and the buildings generally old: there are thirty-six churches. The castle is thought to have been first erected by the Saxon king Offa, and rebuilt in the fourteenth century by Edward II. It is in the centre of the city, and is surrounded by a deep ditch: it has been occupied as a prison for more than 400 years. This city which in the fourteenth century was so considerable, that it lost 58,000 inhabitants by the plague, and which in 1505, was almost totally destroyed by fire, owes its present flourishing state to its industry alone. It is above two leagues in circuit, and contains four hospitals, numerous schools, and a public library.

Lincolnshire.

The *Wash*, along which we now proceed, belongs to the maritime district of *Lincolnshire* which extends north as far as the Humber. The physical aspect of the country here has been strikingly marked by nature: one eighth of its superficies is occupied by *wolds*, wide spaces covered with heaths and fens. These were formerly of so great extent

that from 1780 to 1810, there have been drained 150,000 acres, which at present yield an annual profit of ten dollars an acre. A fifth part of the county still consists of land similar to the above* Nevertheless these territories, being bounded in a great measure by the ocean, will one day become as experience has proved, a rival to the richest parts of the kingdom. As to general character, it may be said that this district is deficient in natural beauty and unhealthy in climate. Its chief wealth lies in the sheep which feed upon the wolds and uplands: their number is computed at 2,500,000; they furnish yearly 22,000,000 pounds of wool, highly valuable on account of its length and thickness for the manufacture of yarn and blankets. The beeves raised here weigh commonly 1200 or 1400 pounds. These facts and the small number of manufactures in the county show it to be rather an agricultural than a manufacturing district. It was anciently inhabited by the *Coritani*, who were subdued by the Romans. Marks of the conqueror's power are still to be seen in every quarter.

Boston.

There are but two cities of any importance in this county. The first is *Boston*, on the river Witham, which flows into the Wash. Boston is a league and a half up the river: by means of its port it carries on an extensive commerce with the Baltic, and employs 125 vessels in the fisheries. The population of this town is 10,000: its principal church, situated upon the market, has a tower 186 feet in height, upon which is a lantern to serve as a beacon for ships. On the banks of the same river, ten leagues above Boston, is the city which gives its name to the shire. *Lincoln* stands upon a hill, and its antiquity is attested by a monument called the gate of Newport, on an arcade sixteen feet in length and ten in width, which is considered one of the finest remnants of Roman architecture in England: as it still serves the purpose of an entrance to the city, this structure is a proof that Lincoln occupies the site of the ancient city of *Lindum*. It is well known that this city was formerly rich and powerful, that it was surrounded with a wall, and that William

Lincoln.

* See Stone's View of the Agriculture of Lincolnshire.

BOOK CLIII.

the Conqueror built here a castle to overawe the inhabitants. The city forms two divisions, the upper and the lower: through this last the river passes, flowing under an arch which conceals its course, but on leaving the town it forms a pond called the *Foss Dike*, through which it communicates with the *Trent*, and by means of this river, with the chief canals of the kingdom: this affords the means for a great trade in corn and wool. On the loftiest eminence of the city are the ruins of the ancient archiepiscopal palace, destroyed by the soldiers of Cromwell—relics of great interest, and well worthy the attention of the antiquarian: but the most interesting object is the Cathedral, a magnificent specimen of Norman architecture, and considered to be the largest church in England next to York Minster. From its position on a lofty height, it may be seen from five or six of the surrounding counties: its length from east to west is 530 feet: its breadth 227. The portal and two of the towers are as old as the eleventh century: the remainder was constructed at different periods. Anterior to the reformation it was the richest cathedral in the kingdom, but Henry VIII seized a great part of its wealth. During the troubles under Charles I, its numerous and elegant tombs were mutilated, and the cathedral was converted into a barrack. Like all the churches of the country, it contains a great many bells, a peculiarity which justifies the appellation of *Ile Sonnante*, bestowed upon England by the wit of Rabelais. The most remarkable of these bells is that called *Great Tom*, in the central tower: it is seldom rung, from the difficulty occasioned by its enormous weight, which is 96 cwt: its circumference is 22 feet.

Cathedral.

Yorkshire.

Beyond the Humber, a fine road leads us to the city of *York*, which, placed in the centre of *Yorkshire*, forms by itself a distinct county. It is pleasantly situated at the junction of the Ouse and Fosse: the former of these streams is crossed by a handsome stone bridge, and the latter by five bridges, one of which, lately constructed, is remarkable for its architecture. York has 21,000 inhabitants, and 24 churches. Its cathedral, called the *Minster*, is the largest gothic edifice in England, or perhaps in Europe, being 524 feet in length, and 107 in breadth: the nave is 99 feet high,

York.

Minster.

and the lantern 213: one of the two front towers contains ten bells, the largest of which weighs 57 cwt. Within, the spectator beholds with interest a wall separating the choir and nave, adorned with the statues of all the kings of England from William the Conqueror to Henry VI: the choir has 32 marble seats; the altar is ascended by a flight of 16 steps, and the whole church is paved in mosaic: there are many tombs, some of them magnificent. In 1829 an insane fanatic set fire to this edifice, and a great part of it was destroyed; but liberal contributions from individuals have been made for its repair, and we may expect to see it soon restored to its original splendour. The other edifices worthy of note are, the public library, built in the reign of Richard I: the castle, erected by Richard III, and now a prison: the county hospital, an Ionic structure with an elegant portico, and the Guild-hall, built in the fifteenth century. All these fine structures, surrounded with elegant private buildings, in wide and well-paved streets, illuminated at night by gas, have gained this city a high reputation for beauty. It is surrounded by a wall with four principal gates, and a wide quay extends along the port, which is capable of receiving vessels of 120 tons.

Edifices.

The trade of York is so considerable as to maintain two public banks, a treasury office, a subscription library, several reading rooms, a theatre, a cabinet of natural history, a philosophical society, and in fact all those establishments usually found in the most industrious and wealthy cities in England. This city and London are the only cities whose chief magistrate has the title of Lord.

Yorkshire is of a size vastly disproportioned to the other counties of the kingdom. From Spurn Head at the mouth of the Humber to its northwestern limit, this county is 44 leagues in extent, and 35 in breadth from Flamborough Head to the boundary of Lancashire, comprising an area of 775 square leagues. This great extent has occasioned a division into three *Ridings*. In the *West Riding* is *Rippon*, on an eminence near the Ure, a small town of 4000 inhabitants, with a theatre and public promenade, considered one of the most elegant in England. This district is one of the most considerable in the kingdom for its industry, which is

BOOK CLIII.

Cities.

much facilitated by canals and collieries. *Sheffield*, at the confluence of the *Sheaf* and the *Don*, is celebrated for its furnaces, and manufactures of steel, nails, cutlery, surgical instruments, and plated ware. *Leeds*, *Wakefield*, *Halifax*, *Huddersfield* and *Bradford*, are different centres of an immense manufacture of cloths, flannels and shawls. In the *East Riding*, upon the left bank of the Humber, is *Hull*, or *Kingston upon Hull*, whose wealth is owing to a great commerce with Europe, Asia, and America: this city contains many handsome buildings, a square, ornamented with a statue of William III, many charitable and literary institutions, and a population of 29,000, of which above 4000 families are occupied in manufactures. Last of all, in the *North Riding*, is *Scarborough*, one of the best seaports on the coast: its shores are much frequented for bathing, and the town, which has 8000 inhabitants, is large and well built, on the summit of a steep rock. *Whitby*, six leagues north of this, has a good harbour and 13,000 inhabitants.

Durham.

One of the most powerful tribes of ancient Albion were the *Brigantes:* originating in Thrace, they spread into Germany and Gaul, and thence passed over to Great Britain, where they took possession of nearly the whole of Yorkshire, the county of Durham, a part of Northumberland and Cumberland: in this last territory, one of their clans took the name of *Cumbri*. The emigrations of this people are attested by ancient writers,* but history is silent as to the causes of such national wanderings. It could not have been the advantage of the climate which drew them to these northern regions. The county of Durham, for example, offered at that day few attractions to the primitive colonists on this score: the air upon the hills is sharp and cold: in the north and west the soil is almost barren and the population irregularly scattered. On the coast however, the land has some fertility, and exhibits woods, pastures and small farms. During the Heptarchy this district was a part of the kingdom of Northumberland. When the princes of the country embraced christianity, the religious temper of the times prompted them to grant this territory in per-

* Herodotus, Lib. VII. Strabo. Lib. XII.

petuity to St Cuthbert, bishop of Lindisfarn and his successors. William the Conqueror confirmed this donation, conferred upon these prelates the title of Count Palatine, and invested them with such ample powers that within their own diocese they were higher in authority than the king. Hence this county is still called the Bishoprick of Durham.

The city of Durham is partly surrounded by the river Wear, and was founded in 995, at which period the monks of Lindisfarn established themselves in this place with the relics of St Cuthbert. Durham is distinguished for the beauty of its situation and the venerable aspect of its ancient public edifices. The cathedral in particular, surpassing in regularity most of the churches of the eleventh century, has a majestic length of 411 feet, and holds an eminent place among the beautiful monuments of Norman architecture.

Bordered on the south by the river Tees, and on the north by the Tyne, the county of Durham finds the chief aliment of its commerce in its collieries which furnish annually 55,000,000 bushels; in its lead mines in the west, and in its iron in the north which maintains several furnaces. *Stockton*, in the south, a few leagues from the north of the Tees, is one of the prettiest towns in the north of England, and contains two iron foundries and 5000 inhabitants. In the north-east is *Sunderland*, with thrice this number, a large and handsome town, having a good harbour. A large number of ships are built here, and manufactories exist of glass bottles and pottery.

Stockton.

Sunderland.

Bounding Durham is the county of *Northumberland*, which has on the coast, two small districts cornered into its territory, belonging to the preceding county. The Tyne and the Derwent, one of its branches, form a part of its southern boundary, and on the north, the Tweed separates it from Scotland. Agriculture is here carried to the highest point of perfection, but the soil has such variation in quality as to present the contrast of extreme fertility and wretched barrenness. The influence of the Cheviot Hills which form the northwestern border, and are often covered

Northumberland.

BOOK CLIII.

with snow many months after it has disappeared in the plains, is so powerful notwithstanding their inconsiderable height, as to occasion this variable temperature. Extensive collieries are worked in almost every part, but particularly in the south-east. It has been calculated that, supposing an annual working of 36,000,000 cubic feet of coal in the single basin of *Newcastle*, 1000 years would be necessary to exhaust it.* The sale of this mineral forms the basis of the trade of the county, while the transportation, which is principally effected by water, trains up a vast number of seamen for the British navy. The annual exportation of coal is estimated at 1,561,337 tons, and the number of persons employed in digging and transporting it cannot be less than 70,000. The iron mines furnish a considerable quantity of metal which is exported from Holy Island to the neighbouring territories. We do not meet in this county with those manufactures of cloth which have exalted British industry above that of any other nation: we see nothing but forges, foundries, manufactures of sulphate of iron, acetate of lead, bitumen, and other articles whose elementary matter belongs to the mineral kingdom. The Tyne, and the Tweed, the chief rivers of Northumberland have been long famous for their salmon fisheries. These fish are packed in pounded ice and sent from *Berwick* to London, where they arrive as fresh as when taken. Berwick has the rank of a county: the Scotch ceded it to England in 1502: afterwards it was declared independent until the union of the two crowns on the same head. The city is regularly fortified, and has a bridge over the Tweed of fifteen arches, 870 feet in length. The town hall is well built, and the population amounts to 8,700.

Berwick.

Alnwick.

Alnwick, the capital of Northumberland, presents on St Mark's day, a singular spectacle, which shows with what religious respect the English have preserved the ridiculous customs of the middle ages. Those persons who are to take their freedom from feudal obligations, meet on horseback in the market place: each cavalier is dressed in white, with a sword at his side, and a white night cap on his

* Capper. Topographical Dictionary.

head. Leaving this rendezvous in company with the four chamberlains of the city, clothed and armed in like fashion, and accompanied by music, they proceed toward a dirty pool in the neighbourhood, called *Freeman's Well*, here they alight, and according to an ancient usage are compelled to scramble through the pool and come out covered with mud. This ceremony, practised only at Alnwick, is called in common language *jumping into the well*. The ceremony is said to have been established by King John, who chanced to get mired in the spot, and imposed this practice upon the inhabitants as a punishment for not keeping the road in repair.

The town is situated on a hill near the river *Aln*, which is crossed by a handsome bridge built by the Duke of Northumberland, whose splendid mansion stands on the opposite bank. Two remarkable events in the history of England occurred under the walls of this town. In the eleventh century, Malcolm II, king of Scotland laid siege to it; the castle was on the point of surrendering, when a soldier feigning to present the keys of the place to the king on the point of his lance, gave him a mortal wound. Edward his son, in endeavoring to avenge his death, was killed and his army put to the rout. In 1167,* Henry II, gained here a great victory over William the Lion, king of Scotland, took him prisoner, and obliged him to pay a ransom of 100,000 pounds sterling.

Near the ancient wall, built of earth by Adrian, of stone by Severus, and of bricks by Aetius, to restrain the Picts, flows the river Tyne, upon which stands *Newcastle*, peopled with 35,000 souls, without numbering the 12,000 inhabitants of *Gateshead* a suburb on the left bank of the river belonging to the county of Durham. The name of Newcastle was given to this city, when Robert, eldest son of William the Conqueror, built a fortress here against the Scotch. Before that time it was called *Monkcester*, from being full of convents: still more anciently it was named *Gabro Gentum*. Here is a stone bridge of nine elliptical arches of the size of those of London bridge: all the beauty of this

Newcastle.

* According to the chronological tables of John Blair.

BOOK CLIII.

structure however, is hidden by the two rows of houses upon it. From Newcastle most of the vessels are despatched which supply London with coal.

Carlisle.

The Picts' wall passes close to *Carlisle*, a town at the confluence of the Eden and Calder. The name of this town is derived from the old Saxon words *Caer Lyall*, meaning the *town near the wall*. According to some authors, it was founded by a king Luil, long time before the arrival of the Romans, who named it *Luguvallum*. In the seventh century Egfrid, king of Northumberland surrounded it with a wall and ditch. It is the chief town of the county of Cumberland, the ancient territory of the *Cumbri*. Of the works which defended it when Scotland and England belonged to different crowns, there remains nothing but a castle in good preparation, containing a powder magazine and an arsenal for equipping 10,000 men. The unfortunate Mary Stewart was imprisoned in this fortress in 1568. The spot of her perambulations is still known by the name of *the lady's walk*. Carlisle is well built, and its communication with the Solway Frith assures it a considerable commerce.

Cumberland.

Taking leave of this place, we might visit *Long Meg and her daughters*, a fine druidical monument consisting of a large circle of enormous rough stones; but we shall prefer, after the example of the travellers who are drawn to this quarter by the beauty of the scenery, turning our steps a couple of leagues from the little town of *Cockermouth* to *Skiddaw*, a mountain which rises 3,022 feet above the surface of a beautiful lake. Near the summit many eagles and other birds of prey build their nests.

Derwent Water.

Not far from this mountain is *Derwent Water*, the most romantic lake in the county: it is four miles in length, and one in breadth: the approach to it is embellished by the celebrated cataract of *Lowdore*. On the right bank of the Derwent which rises in this lake, is the *Carrock*, a mountain less high than the preceding: it consists of a series of horrible precipices and clefts, of a depth unfathomable to the eye: at the base of this mountain is the *Black Hole*, a narrow pit, 320 feet deep.

These mountains and pits give a coldness and humidity to the air of Cumberland, but do not injure its healthiness:

examples of longevity are no less frequent than in the other counties, although this is one of the least populous: this is doubtless owing to the quality of the soil, as a third part of the land remains uncultivated. It abounds in mines of lead, coal, and plumbago, or black lead, of such a superiority over that of the continent, that the English crayons owe their reputation to this alone. This mineral is found in such plenty, that it is taken from the mines only in limited quantities in order to keep up the price. The *Isle of Man*, 10 leagues from the coast, belongs to this county: it has a population of 40,000 souls, of which 2800 families are employed in commercé and manufactures. Its chief ports are those of *Ramsay*, which is sufficiently wide to contain a large fleet; *Douglas*, a town of 6,000 inhabitants; and the capital, *Castletown*, which is difficult of access.

Isle of Man.

The little county of *Westmoreland*, which, in the north, borders upon Cumberland, is a territory composed of lofty mountains, naked hills, and dark bogs denominated *fells*: it is watered by a number of rivers, brooks and ponds. The lake of *Winandermere*, 15 miles long and 2 miles broad, is the largest in the kingdom: it separates this county from Lancashire, and is famous for an excellent fish called *char*, which is peculiar to Scotland and Westmoreland. In this county are a large number of narrow valleys affording pasturage, divided by barren mountains. The most fertile spots are found chiefly in the valleys watered by the rivers: the grass is here used to feed the cattle brought from Scotland: fine cows, highly esteemed for their milk, supply London with excellent butter from these parts: the geese which feed on the marshy spots, and the swine raised on the mountains, which afford excellent bacon, are the principal riches of this district. Metals are scarce, or lie so deep as to hinder their being wrought with profit. Coal rarely occurs here, but the soil affords slate, chalk, marble and freestone of a good quality. Such are the slight advantages possessed by this county, where we shall find but two towns to visit. *Appleby*, a Roman station called *Aballaba*, the chief town, but otherwise of no importance, and *Kendal* or *Kirby-Kendal*, a town of 9000 inhabitants, celebrated for its woollen manufactures ever since the reign of Richard II.

Westmoreland.

Appleby.

BOOK CLIII.

Lancashire.

Lancashire, or the *county of Lancaster*, is divided from Yorkshire by a range of mountains sufficiently important to acquire the name of the *backbone of England*. This county is bounded on the north by Westmoreland and Cumberland, on the west by the Irish Sea, and on the south by the Mersey, a river visited annually by immense shoals of smelts, renowned for their size and flavour. The mountainous ridge abovementioned, shelters this county from the easterly winds, and the accidents which they occasion: but at the same time in obstructing the passage of the clouds from the west, it causes a greater quantity of rain to fall here than in any other part: this, however, does not injure the salubrity of the air. One of the effects of this humidity is a diminished production of grain: oats alone succeed well: though potatoes are raised in sufficient plenty for exportation. In many parts are excellent grazing lands, and the cheese manufactured here, enjoys a reputation equal to that of Cheshire. *Furness*, a sort of island formed by the sea and two rivers, is a wild and rugged tract, abounding in iron and covered with wood. It contains a considerable lake, called *Coniston Mere*. Though lying far to the north, this tract is pretty fertile: the long and narrow isle of *Walney* serves it as a rampart against the waves of the Irish sea. The neighbourhood of the town of Lancaster is a collection of beautiful fields; the region of the south west is a tract of vast fens called *mosses*, impassable in the wet season and abounding with a greasy black mud.

Industry of the county.

This county, so little favoured by nature, is placed by its industry above all the others: a few local advantages have sufficed to raise it to the highest pitch of prosperity: fire and water have been made instruments of immense power: the woods of the district have been employed to transform the iron to steel: the enormous beds of coal, particularly in the central and southern parts, keep in motion those great instruments of modern industry, the steam engines, applied to manufactures of various kinds. Wool, silk, linen, cotton, iron, copper, and other metals, take all manner of new forms under the hands of the artificer: and, by the aid of numerous canals and navigable rivers, forming a communication between *Hull* and Liverpool, and joining the Severn to the

Thames, an immense exportation affords a living to the labouring ranks, and occasions a general activity among all classes.

Inhabitants.

The population of Lancashire is stamped with a peculiar character: this county is the abode of all the wealth and misery of manufacturing countries. The chief food of the lower classes, especially toward the northern and eastern limits, consists of small thin oatmeal biscuits, baked without leaven. The men have nothing remarkable in their stature or physiognomy, but the beauty of the women has long been proverbial; their enchanting figures, their grace and desire of pleasing, formerly a little tinged with coquetry, gained them the appellation among the rest of the English, of *the Lancashire witches.*

Lancaster.

Lancaster is near the canal to which it gives its name, and stands on a gentle slope on the left bank of the Loyne, a river whose waters heap up such a multitude of sandbanks at its mouth, that vessels larger than 250 tons cannot go up to the city, but land their cargoes two leagues below. The city has a fine quay bordered by stores: the streets are well paved, and the houses of stone, roofed with slate. At a distance of two leagues is a singular cavern, called *Dunald mill hole:* a stream which turns a mill falls immediately afterwards over several beautiful cascades into this cavern, which it traverses for three quarters of a league, and reappears at *Carnford.* In a course of 16 leagues, which we must pass in going from Lancaster to Manchester, there is no town comparable in importance to either of these.

Manchester.

Manchester is, next to London, the most populous, and greatest manufacturing city in the United Kingdom: it is the centre of a manufacture whose products are despatched toward every quarter of the globe. The spectator is struck with astonishment at the sight of the immense magazines of goods destined for so many different countries: the whole world seems tributary to this industrious city: but a subject of no less astonishment is the sad contrast of the misery of the artisans and the wealth of their employers. Here are manufactured muslins, dimities, calicoes, shirtings, cambrics, ginghams, velvets, and other cotton stuffs, which consume on an average 160,000,000 pounds of cotton annu-

BOOK CLIII.

ally. Here are also manufactories of silk, hats, chemical preparations, and the city is surrounded with foundries and other establishments.* The prosperity of Manchester is in part owing to its situation between two canals on the banks of the Irwell, the waters of which stream are excellent for dyeing. The city occupies the locality of a Roman station, called *Mancunium* in the Itinerary of Antoninus. Within its limits are contained 21,160 houses, forming 600 well paved streets, lighted by 300 gas lamps: its population is over 134,000: it contains many literary and benevolent institutions, a theatre, a ball room sufficiently large to contain 1200 persons, and a library hardly proportioned to the size of the city, as it comprises but 20,000 volumes.

Liverpool.

At the mouth of the Mersey is *Liverpool*, the second commercial city of the kingdom, receiving annually in its port 30,000 vessels: this is estimated at the twelfth part of all the navigation of Great Britain, and the commerce here is thought equal to a fourth of all the foreign trade, and the sixth of all the foreign and domestic trade of England, and one half of that of London.* The city stretches along the east bank of the river, and covers a space of a league in length, and one third of a league in breadth: on the west are docks and stores of immense extent, which furnish constant occupation for 3000 workmen. The new quarters of the city are spacious, airy, well paved, and lighted with gas, but in the ancient quarter the streets are narrow. The largest of the docks will contain 100 ships afloat: some are dry docks for repairing vessels, by all which this port is rendered one of the most commodious and safe in the world. At spring tides the sea rises 20 or 30 feet at the mouth of the Mersey, allowing the largest ships to come up to the city, which is entirely open and unfortified. Liverpool, besides its fabrications of every thing for naval purposes, possesses manufactures of porcelain, soap, and sugar, with breweries, foundries, &c. The charitable institutions here are numerous and well endowed. Here is a lyceum and an atheneum, each with a library of 10,000 volumes, a royal institution where public lectures are delivered, and instruction given

* Capper. Topographical Dictionary.

in the belles lettres and mathematics: to this institution belong a museum of natural history, and a botanical garden, considered the first in the kingdom. BOOK CLIII.

Crossing the Mersey we arrive in *Cheshire*, a territory famous for its salt works, its cheese and its agriculture. The salt is dug from mines, and extracted from the water of springs by boiling. The manufacture of cheese produces annually 28,000,000 pounds, one quarter of which is exported. More calves are raised here than in any other part of England: the soil also produces copper, lead, cobalt and coal. There is a very advantageous internal navigation through the medium of several canals. This county is formed from a part of the territory of the *Cornavini*: the Romans have left behind them in this quarter, roads, inscriptions, and other antiquities. William the Conqueror erected the district into a county palatine in favour of his nephew Hugh Lupus, who reigned over it with absolute power: his descendants enjoyed this authority till the reign of Henry VIII. Since the time of Edward III, the king's eldest son has possessed, in addition to his title of Prince of Wales, that of Count of Chester. Cheshire.

Chester is the most important place, and the centre of the administration of justice. This city is watered by the Dee, which, under the Roman government, gave it the name of *Deva*: at a later period it received the name of *Caer Leon*. It is an old town, with the four principal streets built in the style of the 12th century, and a porch before every door: most of the houses are of wood, but the suburbs are handsomer than the city. By means of a canal called *New River*, it enjoys the benefit of a small port, capable of receiving ships of 350 tons. Chester contains 9 churches including the cathedral, several dissenting chapels, 2 public libraries, a number of hospitals and schools well endowed. To the philanthropy of the Earl and Countess of Grosvenor, it is indebted for a school for 400 boys, and another for the same number of girls. The Chester canal extends to *Nantwich*, a town of 5000 inhabitants, carrying on a large trade in cheese and salt. Close to the town is a salt mine, which has been worked above a century; except in size, it much resembles that of Wieliczka: the glare of the lamps Chester. Nantwich.

BOOK CLIII.

among the piles and arches of this subterranean region, produces the appearance of a splendid church illuminated by a thousand torches.

Derbyshire.

Quitting Cheshire for *Derbyshire*, we are struck with the appearance of *High Peak*, a group of small mountains, surmounted by a larger one: this region is considered the most interesting in all England for its romantic scenery, frightful caverns, beautiful cascades, and the variety of its landscape. These mountains give rise to the Derwent, a river traversing the whole length of the county, and which must not be confounded with either of the three others of this name in the counties of York, Durham and Cumberland. There are few mineralogical collections without some beautiful crystals of carbonate and fluate of lime, or specimens of alabaster and black lead from Derbyshire: the mines of this metal have long been abandoned, but coal and marble are still abundant: the marble, especially that which is wrought at the village of *Ashford*, forms a considerable branch of commerce. In this county are mineral springs to the number of 86: the most celebrated are those of Buxton, Matlock and Kittlestone. The land in the south and east, offers many excellent grazing tracts and fertile fields, which send to London annually more than 4,875,000 pounds of cheese. A great deal of barley is also raised, and malt and ale to a large amount are exported. This district also possesses flourishing manufactories of cotton, woollen and silk.

Derby.

On the banks of the Derwent, which is navigable as far as the Trent, stands *Derby*, surrounded by a beautiful plain, traversed by the Derby canal. This city is said to be a place of great antiquity: it was a royal borough in the reign of Edward the Confessor, that is, toward the middle of the 11th century. The houses here are well built, and a number of silk manufactories give it a considerable importance. These manufactories employ a machine which was brought in model from Italy, but perfected in England: in this, a single wheel sets in motion 100,000 pieces of machinery which may each be separately stopped: the wheel makes three revolutions in a minute, and in this short space of time 240,600 yards of silk thread are spun. Derby has also

large manufactures of porcelain, equal to that of China in the beauty of its material and the splendour of colouring. The number of labourers employed in these two great manufacturing branches, and in working marble and various metals, amounts, it is said, to 14,000.

Nottingham.

Descending the Trent as we leave Derbyshire, we come to *Nottingham*, the chief town of a shire to which it gives its name. This city, which is also a county by itself, stands on the slope of a rocky eminence, overlooking a wide extent of meadow. The streets are wide and commodious, and the market square is one of the largest and handsomest in England: on one side of it stands the Exchange, an elegant building of 5 stories. Nottingham may be considered as one of the chief centres of the manufacture of silk and worsted stockings, twilled silk, shawls and coarse pottery. The Trent, the Mersey, and numerous canals traversing *Nottinghamshire*, facilitate the exportation of these manufactures, which are despatched to the West Indies and the American continent. The Trent, which may be called the great ornament of Nottinghamshire, fertilizes an immense extent of fields and meadows from north to south. Carrots are cultivated in the spots which have been cleared of woods, and these, with barley and hops, which supply a great number of breweries, are the chief agricultural products of this territory.

Nottinghamshire.

Leicestershire. Leicester.

We penetrate to the centre of *Leicestershire* without meeting any town comparable in size to the capital, *Leicester*, a town containing 6000 houses. At the period of the Roman invasion it was the chief city of the *Coritani*: the Itinerary of Antonine designates it by the name of *Ratæ*, and Ptolemy calls it *Ahage*. A Roman way crosses it, and many remains of antiquity prove it to have been once an important military station. The river Soar waters the city and carries the machinery of a great number of stocking manufactories, which employ in this place more than 8,000 persons. About forty years since, a mineral spring was discovered here, the beneficial qualities of which have been displayed in cutaneous diseases and obstructions.

The soil of Leicestershire is generally hard, and the surface unequal and hilly: the best lands are the plateaus, and

BOOK CLIII.

the worst, being too clayey, are in the valleys. The most elevated region, called *Charnwood forest*, gives rise to six rivers, which falling into the Trent, may be considered the centre of a great system of internal navigation which the spirit of improvement has rendered so effective in bringing forward the agriculture and industry of Great Britain. Three lines of water communication by canals unite with these navigable streams, and open an intercourse between the great manufacturing towns in the centre of the kingdom and the seas which wash it from east to west. We must not take leave of this agricultural and manufacturing county without subjoining that it produces a fine breed of black horses in high esteem for draught, valuable horned cattle, and a race of sheep, whose wool equals in beauty any produced in Great Britain.

Oakham.

Whoever wishes to have an idea of the spirit of ancient feudality still lingering in many parts of the English government, let him visit the little town of *Oakham*, divided into two parishes or manors, called *Lord's Hold* and *Dean's Hold*. The first manor belongs to the Earl of Winchelsea, who every year holds a court to which the inhabitants resort to pay homage to their Lord and elect parish officers: the latter manor pertains to the Dean of Westminster, whose court is held triennially. Oakham is agreeably situated in a fertile valley, and is the chief town of *Rutlandshire*, the smallest county in England. The name of *Rutland* is probably a corruption of *Red Land*, which the colour of the soil in this part might have suggested. The finest seed-wheat of the kingdom is raised here.

Rutlandshire.

Northamptonshire.

This small territory joins upon *Northamptonshire*, a county enjoying the reputation of being one of the healthiest and pleasantest parts of England. During the season of fine weather, this district becomes the residence of a great number of wealthy families, and country seats and villas are to be seen at every step. The rich landholders here possess the means of gratifying their passion for the chase, in the remnants of the ancient forests about *Rockingham* in the north, and *Salcey* and *Whittlebury* in the south: these woods still afford a shelter to the wild cat, the most ferocious animal of the kingdom. The agricultural products

of Northamptonshire are the same with those of the other counties, but the horned cattle and black horses of this territory are of an extraordinary size. The towns here are of small importance, but *Peterborough*, on the left bank of the *Nen*, contains an elegant cathedral and 5000 inhabitants: this was the birth place of Dr Paley. *Northampton*, on the same river, fourteen leagues above Peterborough, is the shire town: its streets are handsome and the houses elegantly built. There is a great market for horses at different times of the year held in this place. The neighborhood of Northampton was the scene of a battle between the rival parties of York and Lancaster, in which the Lancastrian forces were put to the rout, and king Henry VI, was taken prisoner by the Earl of Warwick.

Peterborough.

Northampton.

The small territory of *Huntingdonshire* was in former times renowned for its forests filled with game:* the tracts on the south and west of the Ouse are still covered with groves separated by fields, which give the most agreeable variety to the landscape: the banks of the river are fringed with meadows: morasses occupy the whole northern part, though some spots have been converted into rich pasture land. The undrained portions form, along with a lake two leagues in length and one in breadth called *Whittlesea Mere*, one fifth of the surface of the county. The moisture here imparted to the air renders this neighborhood unhealthy, particularly to strangers. This county which is wholly destitute of manufactories, and furnishes no other products than grass, corn, and the fish of its ponds, has for its chief town *Huntingdon*, a small place consisting of a single street with a few lanes crossing it: the town however is neat and well lighted.

Huntingdonshire.

Huntingdon.

We take leave of this county, which, as well as *Bedfordshire*, its southern boundary, was formerly peopled by the *Catieuchlani*, better known by the name of *Cassii*, who sent ambassadors to Cæsar to declare their submission to the Romans. These last, and more lately, the Saxons and Normans, have left in Bedfordshire the traces of their dominion: the hamlet of *Sandys*, near Potton, stands on the site of the *Magiovinum* of Antonine. Near *Bradford Magna* may be

Bedfordshire.

* Its name is a sufficient proof. *Hunting Downs.*

BOOK CLIII.

seen the remains of an amphitheatre: a Roman way, called *Ickenild Street*, traverses the county, and passes by the little town of Dunstable, known for its manufacture of straw hats; another crosses this way to the north of the town; a third crosses the Ouse, and extends toward *Newport Pagnell*. The shire town is *Bedford*, in the centre of the county: in the Saxon chronicles it is called *Bedicanford*, and its antiquity is established by the testimony of an elegant stone bridge over the Ouse. The most remarkable objects in Bedford are its schools and charitable institutions. In 1556, Sir William Harper, an alderman of London, founded here a public school, and endowed it with 13 acres of land, the present annual income of which is nearly 27,000 dollars: this sum is applied to the support of divers benevolent institutions, and to the portioning of 40 young women.

Bedford.

Warwick.

The castle of the Earl of Warwick is seated on a rock overlooking the city of this name: the castle is approached by a winding path hewed out of the rock: this is one of the finest structures of the middle age. The city, which is approached by four other roads, likewise cut in the rock, in the direction of the four cardinal points, employs a great number of hands in combing and spinning wool, and making stockings. It is washed by the Avon, and situated in the centre of the county. Four leagues to the northeast, the ancient town of *Coventry*, containing 21,000 inhabitants, has been long celebrated for its ribands and clocks. But the most important city in *Warwickshire*, and which, nevertheless, is not represented in Parliament, is *Birmingham*. The population of this city, with its suburbs, is about 100,000. Its manufactures of arms, sheet iron, hardware, and jewelry, are immense. Here is the grand machinery of Watt, the inventor of steam engines; it employs 1200 men, and turns out every week 1500 muskets: a single machine for coining money strikes 30 or 40,000 pieces in an hour. A monument is erecting in the city to the memory of this celebrated mechanician.

Coventry.

Birmingham.

Warwickshire.

One of the great advantages of this county is the number of its canals, by which it enjoys a communication with every part of the kingdom. The neighborhood of Birmingham, and all the northern part of this territory, was formerly one

great forest; this is now almost entirely destroyed, and fields and meadows occupy its place, but heaths and morasses occur here and there. The country produces excellent cheese. South of Warwick is a region called the *Feldon*, which is productive in corn. Between the Avon and the little river Leam, one of its branches, we may obtain a sight of the Heath of Dunsmore, the scene of the exploits of Guy of Warwick, the Goliah of England. Near the frontier of Oxfordshire, is the low plateau of Edgehill, celebrated for a battle fought in 1642, between the royal and parliamentary armies.

Staffordshire.

In *Staffordshire*, the Trent waters also several fertile tracts: the varied course of this river, bordered with gardens and villas, is not inferior in beauty to the charming landscape which its banks present to the view in Leicestershire. The country traversed by it is furrowed by canals, and the theatre of a multifarious industry, fashioning metals into every variety of shape, and transforming clay into pottery and china of high value. Upon the Lyne, a branch of the Trent, we descry at a distance the lofty square tower of the church of *Newcastle*, and perhaps may hear its chime of eight bells. Six leagues toward the south is *Stafford*, on the left bank of the Sow, carrying on a great trade in cloths, leather, and shoes. This county was formerly inhabited by the *Cornavini*, who fell under the Roman subjection. The remains of several camps of the conquerors are still to be seen. The Romans had in these parts four military stations: two leagues from Stafford, *Mediolanum* is now the little village of *Knightley:* the village of *Wrottesley* was formerly *Uriconium:* this last is situated near *Wolverhampton*, a town with 18,000 inhabitants, and famous for its japan, and manufactures of tin, iron, and copper. The hamlet of *Barbeacon* was once a place of importance, called *Etocetum:* at a short distance from this stood *Uracona*, the site of which is now occupied by *Litchfield*. This town has a population of 5000 souls, and is a bishop's see: it contains one of the most superb churches in the kingdom, where may be seen the tombs of Addison, Johnson, Garrick, and Anna Seward, with their epitaphs by Walter Scott. These celebrated individuals, whose ashes repose by the side of

Newcastle.

Stafford.

Litchfield.

BOOK CLIII.

the remains of Lady M. W. Montague, known for her interesting letters from Constantinople, and for having introduced inoculation for the small pox into this place, were all natives of Litchfield.

Shropshire.

The stream of the Severn and numerous canals, which ought not to have thrown the neighbouring roads into neglect, give an immense activity to the manufactures of linen, cotton, and woollen, and the operation of the mines of *Shropshire* or *Salop*. Lead was obtained here by the Romans, and there is every reason to believe that rich veins of it still exist. The collieries in this county produce annually 130,000 tons. The manufactories contain 180 steam engines, and employ 6000 workmen. There is not a village that does not contain some manufactory. At the village of *Colebrook Dale*, the Severn flows under an iron bridge, forming a single arch 100 feet in span. At Wellington, a town of 8000 inhabitants, the gothic church is supported by cast iron pillars. These two towns rival each other in the importance of their foundries. The chief town of the county is *Shrewsbury*, which has two fine bridges over the Severn, and is an elegant place, built by the Britons on the site of a more ancient town, named *Uriconium:* in the neighborhood is a statue of Lord Hill, upon a stone column. Some distance from this monument, an elegant promenade occupies a wide space between the walls of the town and the river. Shrewsbury, moreover, is famous for its cakes and salt pork.

Shrewsbury.

Worcestershire.

The beauty of the scenery on the banks of the Severn might induce us to follow its course throughout the whole extent of *Worcestershire*, but the charming valleys, verdant hills, and flowery fields of this region, and the gardens which supply the neighboring towns with vegetables, are not objects of sufficient importance to detain us. We must glance for a moment at the two most important towns in the county. *Kidderminster*, upon the Stour, in the midst of a territory surrounded by canals, has in its neighborhood several mineral springs. The manufactures of this place are very flourishing: that of carpets occupies more than 1000 looms, and that of silk more than 700. One third of its inhabitants, to the number of 10,000, are thus employed.

Kidderminster.

On a canal joining the Severn, we meet with the small town of *Droitwich*, producing annually salt to the value of more than 550,000 dollars. Continuing to descend the river, we pass an elegant stone bridge, and arrive at *Worcester*, built upon an eminence which affords a fine prospect of the beautiful fields in the vicinity. The cathedral at this place, finished in 1374, is a gothic edifice of rich architecture, 500 feet in length: among the monuments it contains may be remarked the tomb of King John. This capital suffered much during the bloody wars of York and Lancaster; but the most remarkable scene that passed under its walls was the famous battle between Cromwell and the Scotch, in which these last were defeated with the loss of 2000 killed and 8000 prisoners, who were nearly all sold for slaves in America. Worcester.

If Dorsetshire is the garden of England, Herefordshire must be called its orchard: the fruits of this county have been celebrated since the time of Charles I. Large quantities of cider and perry are exported: agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants: cheese, barley, kitchen stuff, and fine breeds of cattle, give an importance, no less for their abundance than quality, to the productions of this territory. *Hereford*, the chief town, is watered by the Wye, and is a place of great antiquity. According to some writers, the name bestowed upon it by the *Silures*, who dwelt here before the Roman invasion, was *Ersinna*. Others imagine that it was built upon the site of *Ariconium*, mentioned by Antonine, and which was destroyed by an earthquake. Besides these conjectures, there are many tending to show that the name of Hereford, derived from the Saxon, signifies the *ford of an army*, and that this name was applied by the Saxons, in crossing the river, while in pursuit of the ancient Britons who fled into Wales. Hereford began to flourish about the year 825, when Misfred, King of Mercia, built here a church in memory of Ethelbert, King of the East Saxons, who was assassinated by the wife of King Offa, at the moment when he was about to seduce her daughter. A short time afterwards, this church took the rank of a cathedral: it was rebuilt in the 11th century, demolished by the Welsh in the reign of Edward the Confessor, and built a Herefordshire. Hereford.

BOOK CLIII.

third time by its bishop, on the model of the church of Aix la Chapelle. The town is well built and clean: it has some inconsiderable manufactures of gloves, hats, and flannels.

Monmouthshire.

Descending the Wye, we arrive in *Monmouthshire*, a territory where the people still speak the Welsh language, and which was not erected into a county till the reign of Charles II. *Monmouth* is the chief town, and has large manufactures of sheet iron and tin. Part of the inhabitants are employed in the preparation of tan which is extracted from the bark of oaks brought by the river and canals from the forests in the eastern part of the country. Near the embouchure of the Wye, the little town of Chepstow is advantageously situated for commerce: its harbour is capable of receiving ships of 700 tons, but lies exposed to the incursions of the tides which rise often thirty and even sixty feet with such rapidity as to injure the cast iron bridge upon the river. Within the town is a well of fresh water which sinks at high and falls at low tide. Another curiosity shown to strangers who visit Chepstow, is at the castle where may be seen the tower of Harry Martin, one of the judges of Charles I, who died here in 1680 after an imprisonment by order of Charles II. The bridge of this town, the manufactures of the district, and a great number of foundries long established, prove that this county is well provided with mines and collieries: these in fact are the chief sources of its industry, although a few parishes have some manufactures of woollen. A number of canals skilfully directed serve to transport merchandize and extend commercial speculation.

Monmouth.

Chepstow

Principality of Wales.

Hardly equal to the sixth part of England, the principality of Wales, is nevertheless divided into twelve counties. We shall avoid the monotony into which a description of each separate county would lead us, and shall proceed to adopt only the geographical division which portions this country into two regions, North and South Wales. The great number of mountains which diversify its surface have gained it the name of Little Switzerland. It will be readily understood that it is not in the loftiness of their summits this resemblance can be traced with the country of the Alps, but in their steep, rough, and perpendicular sides,

the depth of their narrow valleys, the small but limpid lakes which occur at every step, the great number of rivers and streams which now are precipitated in cascades, and now roll their waters slowly through the meadows, the damp fogs which rise from the surface of these waters and often hang about the summits of the highest mountains, and the snow which frequently continues upon the heights till the end of spring: all which give to these mountains, notwithstanding their inconsiderable height, which does not rise above 3600 feet, an appearance resembling those lordly eminences mounting up to the clouds and bearing on their heads eternal snows. This country offers a continual succession of romantic landscapes and scenes of savage wildness. In the southern part *Cader Idris*, one of the highest mountains, offers to the research of the botanist a great variety of alpine plants. In the north the mountains gradually decline in height, but fine prospects are proportionally multiplied. The northern division is less fertile and populous than the southern. Here the productions of the soil are sufficient for the sober life of the inhabitants. In the centre, the atmosphere has all the sharpness of an elevated region: near the sea which washes this country on the north, west, and south, the climate is mild but damp. Nothing however exists to hinder us from regarding Wales as generally healthy.

Manufacturing industry and commerce have within these twelve years made such advances in Wales, that in less than this space of time the population has increased above a sixth. In the southern division, the county of *Glamorgan*, is so fertile as to be called the *garden of Wales*; it is rich in coal and metals, and is in fact the Hartz of the country. Here are annually produced 125,000 tons of cast and bar iron, and 7500 tons of copper. The county of *Brecknock* or *Brecon* is less rich in mines, but superior in grazing; great numbers of sheep are raised here, and the chief manufactures of the county are stockings and woollen cloths. In *Carmarthen* or *Caermarthen*, the soil is renowned for its bounteous crops of oats and barley, but wheat is not cultivated here with success. In the maritime county of *Pembroke*, cornfields, vast meadows and forests

South Wales.

BOOK CLIII.

in the interior, and productive fisheries on the coast oppose a hindrance to the development of manufacturing industry. To the profits of fisheries, the inhabitants of *Cardiganshire* add the trade in wool and cattle. The sea is often raised by storms on this coast and causes great damage. Finally the county of *Radnor* limited on the south by the meandering course of the Wye, is the most barren and least populous of all, but by dint of labour it has been made one of the best cultivated territories in the principality.

North Wales.

In North Wales, the county of *Montgomery*, intersected by valleys, hills, meadows and cultivated fields, abounding in lead mines, but deficient in coal, is celebrated for the quantities of fish, particularly salmon, which the rivers afford. *Merionethshire*, beset with high mountains, is an agricultural and manufacturing district, and carries on a great trade in woollen cloth. *Denbighshire* produces grain in abundance, raises goats, sheep, and other animals, and furnishes cheese equal to that of Cheshire: it has also iron, lead and coal mines; the air is pure, and the inhabitants are long-lived: the frost of age does not chill the industrious spirit with which they are gifted. *Flintshire*, less mountainous than the others, abounds in corn and pasturage, possesses mines of lead and coal, and maintains great numbers of bees, the honey of which, in many places, is made into a liquor highly esteemed, called *metheglin*. In the maritime county of *Carnarvon*, agriculture is in a backward state: horses and horned cattle, and the products of mines and fisheries are the chief resources of the people. The life of the peasants in this territory bears, in many points, a considerable resemblance to that of the Swiss mountaineers: from the end of May till September, they abandon their valleys, and go to tend their flocks among the mountains, where they subsist upon their milk and flesh: in autumn they return to their habitations, and spend the winter in spinning wool and making coarse cloth for domestic use. In the island of *Anglesey*, which ranks as a county, cultivation has improved since contraband trade has ceased to be the sole occupation of the inhabitants.

Administration of justice.

For the administration of justice, these 12 counties are divided into four circuits, each under the jurisdiction of a

judge, who sits at the assizes every six months. That of Chester, comprises, in addition to Cheshire, which joins upon Wales, *Flintshire*, *Denbighshire* and *Montgomeryshire*. The northern circuit is composed of the county of Anglesey, Carnarvonshire and Merionethshire. The southwestern circuit is formed of *Pembrokeshire*, *Cardiganshire* and *Carmarthenshire*. The southeastern circuit contains *Glamorganshire*, *Brecknockshire* and *Radnorshire*. In ecclesiastical government, this principality is under the archbishop of York, and contains the bishoprics of *St Asaph*, *Llandaff*, *Bangor* and *St David's*.

The abovementioned counties, whose principal towns only we shall pass in review, all bear the names of their capitals except *Merionethshire* and *Glamorganshire*. The latter has for its chief town *Cardiff*, on the left bank of the Taff: it dates from the year 1079. The canal of Glamorgan, which runs parallel with the river, facilitates the trade of this place with the interior, while its harbour, at the mouth of the same stream, is capable of receiving a large number of vessels. The village of *Llandaff* has the title of a city in consequence of its bishopric. The little town of *Neath*, to which we proceed from Cardiff by a road 13 leagues in length, bears the name of a river, which near the town falls into the bay of Swansea. In the vicinity are several manufactories, and at *Mellincourt* is a cascade 150 feet in height.

Cardiff.

Near the coast is *Swansea*, a town of 1000 souls, more deserving than Cardiff, the rank of capital: its harbour, at the mouth of the Tawy is one of the most important in Wales: a number of canals bring to this place the products of the country, and the sea-bathing in the neighborhood, brings every year to this spot a great number of visiters.

Swansea.

On the right bank of the Tawy, which is a considerable stream, we come to *Carmarthen* or *Caermarthen* in crossing an elegant bridge of ten arches: this town is built in the form of an amphitheatre, upon the site of *Maridunum*, an ancient town of the *Dematecæ*. It is a large and busy place; and was formerly defended by walls, vestiges of which only remain: the castle is now used as a jail. The environs of this town are covered with picturesque ruins, and the inhabitants pretend that Merlin, the enchanter, es-

Carmarthen.

BOOK CLIII.

tablished his abode upon an eminence in the neighbourhood. Five leagues to the southeast is a rail road, extending from the bank of the river to *Llanelly*, which gives an activity to the manufactures of this small town.

Pembroke.

Keeping along the seacoast we pass the town of *Pembroke*, consisting of one long narrow street. This was the native place of Henry VIII. Under the chapel of the ancient castle built by Arnulph in the time of William Rufus, is the cave of *Wogan*, remarkable for an echo repeating several syllables. *Milford Haven*, a town of 3000 inhabitants, has a safe port capable of receiving above 1000 ships. *St David's*, upon the sea, near a cape of the same name, which the ancients called *Promontorium Octapitarum*, is nothing more, notwithstanding its capital, than a village of 2000 inhabitants: the name it bears is that of the patron saint of Wales, as St George is the patron of England, St Andrew of Scotland, and St Patrick of Ireland: but there is this peculiarity relating to St David, — on the 1st of March, the day of this saint, the people wear leeks in commemoration of him, a symbol which learned theologians explain in a variety of ways. *Cardigan* has a harbour much frequented, and gives its name to a large gulf which forms several bays. At the foot of one of the branches of the great chain of mountains traversing Wales through its whole extent, stands *Brecknock* or *Brecon*, a small town surrounded by old fortifications. Old and New *Radnor*, distant less than half a league from each other, are not worth visiting. The county assizes are held alternately at New Radnor and *Presteigne:* but this last town, called in Welsh *Llan Andrew*, has the advantage of the other in being well built. Near the right bank of the Severn, stands *Montgomery*, seated upon a rock, and visible at a distance by means of the ruins of its ancient castle. If we turn to the left, and proceed eleven leagues to the banks of the Dyvy, we shall arrive at the handsome town of *Machynleth*, where Owen Glendower accepted the crown of Wales in 1402.

St David's.

Cardigan.

Radnor.

Montgomery.

Nearly all the towns of this principality, have some ruinous old castle frowning over them. *Denbigh*, dismantled in 1646; and Flint at the mouth of the Dee, present in their edifices of the middle ages, some traits of resemblance

Denbigh.

Flint.

to each other: if the latter is less populous than the former, its sea baths render it more pleasant during the summer. It was at Flint that Richard II, submitting to necessity, resigned his crown to the Duke of Lancaster, afterwards Henry IV. *Caerwys*, formerly capital of a county, and until the reign of Elizabeth, the rendezvous of the Bards who resorted hither each year to dispute the prize of song before judges appointed by the king, has at present only 900 inhabitants. Holywell, a town of 8000 souls, enriched by mines and manufactures, is famous for a spring called *St Winifred's Well*, which gushes from a rock with such violence and copiousness as to give out 7,500 gallons of water every minute. *St Asaph* is but a single street, but it takes the name of a city in consequence of being a bishop's see. The population of this place is but 2000: the cathedral is falling to ruin, and service is performed in another church. *Bala*, which divides with *Dolgelly* the dignity of being the seat of the assizes of Merionethshire is a very ancient place, and exhibits the remains of three Roman camps. This town stands on the shore of the Bala, the largest lake in Wales, though it is but a league and a quarter in length and half a league in breadth. Near the site of the ancient *Legontium*, of which a few vestiges remain, Edward I, founded in 1285, *Carnarvon* or *Caernarvon*: the harbour of this place, on the southern shore of the channel of Menai, between Wales and Anglesey, is the constant resort of shipping from all parts of the kingdom, and of visiters for the purpose of bathing during the fine season. *Bangor*, like all the other episcopal cities of this principality, is nothing more than an assemblage of mean habitations around an old cathedral, which was partly demolished by Owen Glendower. The sole electoral city in the isle of Anglesey is *Baumaris* which we descry with its harbour on the eastern coast as we leave Bangor: but the most important seaport in the island is *Amlwich*, on the southern coast: this town has a population of 5000, and its port, cut out of the solid rock, is sufficient for the reception of thirty vessels of 200 tons. This work was effected by the copper mining companies of the island.

Caernarvon.

Baumaris.

Amlwich.

BOOK CLIV.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Historical and Topographical Description of the British Islands.

SECTION II. DESCRIPTION OF SCOTLAND.

BOOK CLIV.

A distance of thirty leagues separates the coast of Wales from that of Scotland. The navigation of the Irish sea is not without its difficulties, but the Welsh and Scotch sailors are so well acquainted with these parts, that we may confide ourselves to their care in full safety: the great number of deep bays with which the western coast of Great Britain is indented, offers besides so many points of shelter against the fury of the tempests.

Wigtonshire.

Entering the Solway Frith, we discover the small town of *Wigton*, situated on the slope of a hill at the bottom of a bay of this name: it is the chief town of an agricultural county. On the west, a tongue of land called the *Mull of Galloway*, hides from the view, *Port Patrick*, a commodious and safe harbour, from whence a great trade is carried on with Ireland: this place possesses one of the finest quays in Great Britain. Next we come in sight of *Kirkcudbright*, chief town of a county: this is a small and handsome town regularly built, on the Dee, with a port three leagues from the mouth of the river. The county is hilly towards the north, and the soil except in the valleys, is not fertile, but the pastures feed large flocks of sheep. Finally we land at *Dumfries*, a handsome town on the banks of the beautiful river Nith: vessels of 150 tons may reach this

Kirkcudbrightshire.

Dumfries.

place, and the commerce of the port gives an increased activity to its manufactures of hosiery and hats. From the burial ground on the highest elevation of the place, a magnificent view is presented. Downs and sandy tracts border the Solway, but after passing them, we must be careful not to forget the tide upon the shores of this gulf, which rises twenty or thirty feet with such rapidity, that the best mounted horseman would find it difficult to save himself by flying before it. *Annan* a town which bears the name of a river flowing into the Frith, carries on a coasting trade and salmon fishery: in the neighborhood are the remains of Roman camps and other antiquities. Near this spot terminates the wall of Adrian. Towards the southern extremity of the county is the little town of *Moffat*, celebrated for its mineral waters, sulphureous and chalybeate: the town consists of but a single street.

Annan.

Moffat.

Before proceeding to the highlands of Scotland, and penetrating through their deep valleys, we shall detain ourselves awhile about the ramifications of the Cheviot Hills, from which descend the Dee, the Nith, and the Annan, into the Solway. We shall then give a cursory examination of the political and religious features of the country, and pass in review its productions, the manners of the Highlanders, and the history of Scotland. We have already given a sketch of three of the counties: the whole country contains thirty others, much smaller than those of England, their superficies comprising but 3,830 square leagues, including the islands. Scotland is divided naturally into two distinct regions, the Highlands and Lowlands, but a more exact division would separate it into three parts, the northern, central, and southern divisions. The first is separated from the second by the Frith of Forth on the east, and the Frith of Clyde on the west: between these two gulfs is a communication by means of the great Caledonian Canal. The second division is separated from the third, along the space between the *Murray* or *Moray Frith*, in the northeast, and *Loch Linnhe*, in the southwest, by a series of lakes, through which the Caledonian canal passes, uniting, by an extent of 30 leagues, the German Ocean with the Irish Sea.

The people of the Highlands and Lowlands are distin-

BOOK CLIV.

guished from each other by their language, customs, and dress: the Lowlanders bear, in their manners, some traits of resemblance to the English, and even the French, while the Highlanders, in both language and customs, approach nearer to the Welsh and Irish. These mountaineers have always shown the strongest attachment to every thing which recalls the memory of their ancestors: the harp of the bard has been replaced by the shepherd's bagpipe, but the simple harmony of the music has not been changed: a touching and native gracefulness still marks their amatory songs: a more stirring and emphatic strain, fitted to the gay modulations of the dance, is designedly preserved in the British armies, to excite the Scottish soldiers to battle. The national costume, which, during the frequent rebellions in Scotland, has always been a badge and incitement of revolt, was finally prohibited by parliament, after the last rebellion in favour of the Stuarts, but it is still in general use among the highlands, and has even been preserved in the regiments of soldiery in this part of Scotland. This dress consists of a *philibeg* or *kilt*, and a *plaid* worn over the shoulder like the Roman toga, and fastened with a pin or clasp of silver: the thighs are left bare, but the leg is covered with a tartan stocking, fastened up to the knees with crossed garters of variegated woollen: a small bonnet, adorned with a feather, is worn upon the head. The dress of the Highland women differs from that of the other Scotch females, chiefly by the sort of cloak in which they are wrapped, and by the tartan.

Languages.

The Scotch language is composed of the Celtic and other northern idioms. We easily distinguish in it several dialects — the Scottish proper, or *Lowland Scotch*, spoken formerly at the court of the kings of Scotland, and in which James V composed some graceful verses; — the *Border Scotch*, a mixed dialect, spoken on the southern frontiers, and containing the popular ballads of the country: to these may be added the language of the Orkneys, remarkable for the number of Norwegian words it contains. There are also two dialects of the Gaelic or Celtic in use among the Scotch, namely, the *calnonach*, spoken among the mountains, and in the Hebrides, and the *Manks*, existing only in the Isle of Man.* The caldonach acquired considerable reputation after

* See the Atlas ethnographique, par M. Adrien Balbi.

the publication of the pretended poems of Ossian. English is spoken in all parts of Scotland, but the pronunciation is as bad as in the south of England.

Antiquities.

Relics of antiquity are found in nearly every parish in the kingdom. We have already noticed the wall built by the Romans between the Friths of Forth and Clyde: it is called by the people of the country, *Grahame's dyke*, after a Scottish warrior who is believed to be the first that passed it. The neighborhood still affords vestiges of Roman camps, one of which passes for the camp of Agricola. A number of conical towers and fortifications which crown the summits of the mountains, and many subterranean habitations attributed to the Picts, may be considered as all belonging to the same epoch. There are some ancient round and square towers remarkable for the solidity of the cement with which they are built: these are called the *vitrified forts*, and are of rather dubious origin; it is not known whether they were constructed by the Romans, or by the native inhabitants, who learned their architecture from the conquerors: they are doubtless of high antiquity. Many Saxon edifices in the country may be dated at the 9th and 10th centuries, but the churches and ancient castles which served for an asylum to the nobles during the civil wars, belong to the 12th and 13th centuries. These monuments which refer to the three most obscure periods in the history of Scotland, form a sort of connecting link between the most ancient events and those which preceded the final union of the two crowns of Great Britain. In going back as far as the researches of history will permit us, we find that the primitive population of Scotland consisted of the *Cimbri* who came from the Cimbric Chersonesus, now the peninsula of Denmark, about two centuries before the Christian era. This people remained masters of the country till the *Caledones* or *Picti* whom Tacitus believed to have originated in Germany, left Norway, landed on the northern coast of Scotland, and drove the Cimbri towards the south. These Picti are the ancestors of the Lowland Scotch, and a distinction has always been made between these people and those of the western highlands. Towards the middle of the third century, the *Attacotti*, so called by Ammianus Marcel-

Ancient Inhabitants.

Cimbri.

Picti.

Attacotti.

BOOK CLIV.

linus and other Latin writers, passed from Ireland into the county of Argyle, and became the original stock of the Scotch Highlanders, who speak an Irish idiom analogous to the Celtic, while the inhabitants of the Lowlands have always preserved the Scandinavian idiom. Subjugated by Agricola in the first century, Scotland was for three hundred years regarded as a Roman conquest, although the submission of the country never was complete. *Caledonia* was governed by the customs of each of the tribes it contained: the Picti retained the habit of painting their bodies.

Middle Ages.

At the fall of the Roman Empire, the *Cimbri* and *Attacotti* united against the *Picti*, and fought long for the mastery: their bloody struggle was only ended by a treaty of alliance between the chiefs of the two nations, who in 843 were finally conquered by Kenneth II, king of Scotland. After this event the country became, during many years, the prey of the Danes and Norwegians, but the bravery of the inhabitants at length freed the soil from enemies. As late as the beginning of the 11th century, the northern part of the kingdom preserved the name of *Pictland;* the south retained the appellation of *Valencia* and *Cumbria*, which recalled the memory of Roman dominion: the valleys at the foot of the Grampians, peopled by the descendants of the *Attacotti*, were comprised under the name of *Strathcluyd*. It was not until the time of Malcolm II, that these divisions were confounded in the title of the kingdom of Scotland. William the conqueror invaded the kingdom, but respected its independence.

Rivalry of Scotland and England.

In the 12th century we find sanguinary manifestations of that rivalry of the two kingdoms, each too small to content the ambition of its sovereign, and striving for aggrandizement at the cost of the other. The aggressions of Henry III of England, were at first repelled in a manner glorious to Scotland, by Alexander II. But Edward I, profiting by the death of Alexander III, destroyed the principal archives of Scotland in order to establish a plausible claim to the sovereignty in favor of England, a sovereignty never in reality possessed: having done this, he bestowed the empty title of king of Scotland upon John Baliol, whom he held in a state of dependence, overwhelmed with humiliations, and

obliged to appear six times at the bar of the English parliament to give an account of his pretended misdemeanors, but with the secret view of inciting him to rebellion and gaining a pretext for pronouncing the forfeiture of his rights and the confiscation of the kingdom. Baliol finally disavowed his disgraceful concessions, and proclaimed the independence of his country, when Edward, already master of the chief cities in the kingdom, overran the country which had not time to prepare for defence, and carried the insignificant king to London along with the regalia and the famous stone called *Innisfail*, the palladium of Scottish independence. The brave William Wallace stirred up his countrymen against their oppressor: in so unequal a strife, their hope of success lay in union, but party jealousies occasioned divisions, and they yielded to the usurper, regretting that they had refused a sovereign authority to the hero who sought nothing but their deliverance, and who was worthy of the dignity. Wallace was betrayed, delivered up to the savage conqueror, and put to death. Finally, under the guidance of the celebrated and persevering Robert Bruce, who was proclaimed king in 1306, Wallace was avenged, and the decisive battle of Bannockburn, won by the Scots eight years afterwards, established the independence of Scotland.

Independence of Scotland.

From this period anarchy and revolt drew the kingdom into a continual series of revolutions. James I, whose long captivity in the Tower of London had soured his temper, attempted, in too precipitate a manner, to allay the troubles, but died by the hand of an assassin. With this prince began that long series of misfortunes, which pursued the Stuarts during four centuries. James II, his son, fell at the siege of Roxburgh by the bursting of a cannon, which he was assisting to prove. James III, abandoned to the influence of worthless favorites, and hated by his subjects, fell by the weapons of conspirators. James IV, the beloved of his people, was never seen after the battle of Flodden Field, the unfortunate result of an expedition which he had undertaken against England to assist the project of invasion meditated by Louis XII. James V, alienated the feelings of his people by favouring the pretensions of the clergy, and died of chagrin after seeing 10,000 Scotchmen refuse to fight for their king, and lay down their arms before 500 English.

BOOK CLIV.

Mary Stuart succeeded him, but her attachment to the Catholic religion was more fatal to her than to her brother, and she abdicated in favour of James VI, her son, who, by the death of Elizabeth, was called in 1603 to the throne of England. This throne he ascended by the name of James I, and united the two crowns upon his head: but it was not till 1707 that the two kingdoms were definitively united under the name of Great Britain: at this point only, the interests of Scotland, and the details of its history, become identified with those of England.

Union of Scotland and England.

Administration of justice.

Scotland is represented in the Imperial Parliament, which has borne this title ever since the suppression of the parliament of Ireland, by 16 peers elected by the nobility at each new parliament, and by 45 commoners, 30 of whom are chosen by the counties, and 15 by the royal boroughs. The Scotch have, notwithstanding, preserved their ancient laws and institutions: justice is administered by a court of session, whose decisions can be reversed only by the high court of parliament: civil and criminal cases also are decided in the *court of justiciary*, the first criminal tribunal in the kingdom, of which the members make two circuits a year through the different districts: by the *court of exchequer*, whose prerogatives are the same as in England: by the *court of admiralty* which pronounces only upon maritime cases; and by the *commissary court*, composed of four judges, who decide upon questions of marriage, divorce, &c. Each county has its sheriff, an elective magistrate, whose duty it is to secure criminals, institute processes and execute the sentences of justice: the cities and royal boroughs have also inferior magistrates, justices of the peace, and a royal officer called the *coroner*, charged with the performance of inquests, in cases of violent deaths.

Ecclesiastical organization.

The ecclesiastical organization of Scotland differs from that of England: presbyterianism is the prevailing religion in Scotland, and a perfect religious liberty, the fruit of the long discords of the country, was secured by the act of union: the system of presbyterian government is modelled upon the plan of the reformed French communion, and the ministers enjoy the same spiritual authority and temporal advantages. No one of them receives a salary larger than 200 pounds sterling, nor less than 50 pounds. The govern-

ment of the church lies in a general assembly, in provincial synods, in the presbytery, and in the *kirk sessions*, or assemblies of an inferior order composed of ministers, elders and deacons from different parishes: these assist the pastor in his functions, pay visits to the rich, and carry consolation and succour to the poor.

Education.

Scotland holds an honourable rank among the most enlightened countries of Europe: it contains six universities, and each of its large cities has academies and colleges, in which education is carefully attended to: each parish has also an elementary school.

Industry.

Before the union with England, the imports and exports of this country were quite unimportant: the industry of the kingdom was then in its infancy. At present, Scotland is distinguished for its manufactures of woollen and cotton, its foundries and establishments of domestic industry; fisheries have increased, and commerce has become one of the chief resources of the inhabitants.

After this digression, designed to prepare the reader for the interesting spectacle offered by the progress of civilization, and the beauties of nature in Scotland, we shall be enabled to continue our march through the country, leaving upon our right the Cheviot Hills, so abounding in wild beauty and enchanting landscapes.

Jedburgh.

We shall pass near *Roxburgh*, a little village giving its name to a county, of which it was formerly the capital: the castle at this place, which has witnessed so many battles between the Scotch and English, is now only a heap of ruins. *Jedburgh*, in a deep valley traversed by the little river *Jed*, is at present a royal borough, and the seat of authority: founded at a very remote period, it was for a long time poor and thinly inhabited, but since the end of the last century several manufactories have been established in the place. Not far from the Tweed, and near the industrious town of *Kelso*, containing 5000 inhabitants, is the village of *Eduam*, the birth place of the poet *Thomson*. Proceeding up the stream, we arrive at *Melrose*, less important than Kelso, but famous for its old monastery, of which the gothic remains still excite the spectator's admiration. On viewing this monument of the beginning of the 12th century, we call

Melrose.

BOOK CLIV.

to mind a passage in the poems of that celebrated novelist, whose writings have made all Europe acquainted with the beauties and manners of ancient Scotland.

> If thou would'st view fair Melrose aright,
> Go visit it by the pale moonlight;
> For the gay beams of the lightsome day
> Gild but to flout the ruins gray.
> When the broken arches are black in night,
> And each shafted oriel glimmers white:
> When the cold light's uncertain shower
> Streams on the ruin'd central tower.
> When buttress and buttress alternately
> Seem framed of ebon and ivory.
> When silver edges the imagery,
> And the scrolls that teach thee to live and die.
> When distant Tweed is heard to rave,
> And the owlet to hoot o'er the dead man's grave.
> Then go, but go alone the while,
> Then view Saint David's ruin'd pile;
> And home returning, soothly swear
> Was never scene so sad and fair.
>
> *Lay of the Last Minstrel. Canto II.*

Selkirk.

We shall find little to detain our attention at *Selkirk*, a town which gives its name to a county, and stands on the banks of the Ettrick: we shall pass on to the county of Berwick, of which the chief town, at the foot of a mountain near the right bank of the Whitadder, bears the name of *Dunse*: after crossing the hills of *Lammermoor*, we reach *Haddington*, a town giving its name to a county, otherwise called *East Lothian*. This territory is one of the best cultivated in Scotland, and is the central point from which agricultural improvement has extended into every part of the kingdom: its long extent of coast, and several small harbours, furnish the inhabitants the means of exporting with advantage their surplus production of grain, and their hempen and woollen cloth: the same facilities enable the poorest of the people to obtain a living by taking fish and manufacturing salt. The chief town is well built, and is the birth place of the celebrated Scotch reformer John Knox.

East Lothian.

Mid Lothian.

In a county washed on the north by the waters of the Forth, and named *Mid Lothian*, or *Edinburghshire*, stands *Edinburgh*, the celebrated capital of Scotland. It is situated upon three high ridges of land, and divided into two parts,

Edinburgh.

the Old and New town. On all sides except the north, it is surrounded by naked and craggy rocks. High street, upon one of the hills, extends to the length of half a league, and terminates in the west at a precipice, upon which the castle is seated. On the east is seen, in perspective, the palace of Holyrood, and the charming plain surrounding it. We shall not attempt to describe the magnificent effect of the prospect of this street, but the admiration it excites is diminished by the contrast of the narrow lanes which abut upon it from the right and left, where a close and fetid air is generated by the height of the buildings, many of which have ten and eleven stories. On the northern ridge stands the new town, built upon a regular plan, with elegant and spacious streets and squares. The two portions of the city are united by a mound of earth, and a stone bridge passing across the valley which separates them. The new town was begun in 1767, and its streets are equal in regularity and elegance to those of the finest cities in Europe: every year new buildings are erected. The Leith road, which descends gently from the heights on the northeast of the new town, appears likely soon to form a part of the city itself, from the new edifices constantly going up. A new avenue to Edinburgh, called the Regent Road, has been opened on the east, by cutting through the rock of *Calton Hill*, an eminence crowned with the monument of Lord Nelson. On the slope of this hill several elegant promenades have been laid out, from which a magnificent view is presented of the whole city, and the beautiful landscapes in the neighborhood. Edinburgh has a large extent: its circumference is about four leagues. The principal streets are well lighted. The business of police was formerly entrusted to a town guard, who performed the office of watchmen in the night, when they were armed with the ancient Scottish weapon, the Lochaber axe: the last remnant of this venerable body was abolished in 1817, and a police on the modern plan introduced.

Streets.

The most remarkable of all the buildings in Edinburgh is the castle, an ancient fortress no longer capable of defending the city, but still containing a garrison of 3000

Buildings.

BOOK CLIV.

men, and the governor's residence. Of the ancient abbey of Holyrood, founded in 1128, nothing remains but majestic ruins, although the palace near the spot, which was for several centuries the residence of the kings of Scotland, is still an edifice in good preservation. It has acquired an additional notoriety in recent times, as the residence of Charles X, the dethroned king of France. The form of this building is quadrangular, and the court in the centre is surrounded by a portico. Here the visiter is shown a handsome gallery 150 feet long, 72 wide, and 18 in height, containing the portraits of the imaginary kings of Scotland, from Fergus I, downwards, painted by De Witt. In this gallery the peers of Scotland assemble to elect sixteen of their number to represent their order in the British House of Lords. The neighborhood of this palace offers an asylum to insolvent debtors, who enjoy here certain limits, as around the King's Bench prison in London. In the centre of the city a vast pile, composed of several edifices, is appropriated to three libraries, the Signet Library, the Advocates Library, and a subscription library, containing in all, more than 70,000 volumes. The fine gothic church or cathedral of St Giles exhibits a light style of architecture: its lofty square tower is topped by an elegant spire 160 feet high: the turrets which surround it are so arranged as to form an imperial crown. Four separate portions of this edifice are set apart for the celebration of as many different modes of worship.

University.

The university of Edinburgh has long been celebrated for the talent of its professors, and especially for its school of medicine. It was founded in 1582 under James VI, but the buildings being insufficient for the number of students, they were almost entirely rebuilt in 1789. The magnificent scale upon which this undertaking was begun, caused a suspension of the work, which at first was carried on solely by subscription; but the British Parliament in 1815, granted a yearly sum of 10,000 pounds for the completion of it, and the work is now again in progress. The number of professors in this institution is 27; the students exceed 2,000: the library contains above 50,000 volumes, and there is an excellent museum of natural history, a botanical garden

containing hot houses, a green house and a basin for aquatic plants. The High School, founded in 1578, has above 800 scholars. Besides this, there are four English schools under the direction of the municipal body, an academy of drawing, a royal academy of exercises, and many other scientific and literary institutions. There are many literary and learned societies in Edinburgh. The Royal Society was instituted in 1782, the Wernerian Natural History Society in 1808, the Society of Antiquaries in 1783. The Astronomical Institution possesses an observatory furnished with all necessary instruments. Others worthy of notice are the Society of Advocates, the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons, the Highland Society, designed to promote agriculture and the breeding of cattle. The trade of Edinburgh is facilitated by twelve private banks which enjoy the privilege of issuing a certain amount of bills. The prisons are regulated by views of the highest philanthropy, and there are sixteen hospitals, infirmaries, asylums, and charitable institutions, besides many societies for benevolent purposes and the improvement of morals.

Literary and Learned Societies.

One great cause of the prosperity of Edinburgh has been the courts of justice held within the city, whose jurisdiction extends throughout all Scotland, and which bring together vast numbers of people: another cause may be found in the university and the various scientific institutions. It has been remarked that this assemblage of jurisconsults and learned men has given rise among the people of this place to that elegant freedom and polish of manners, and tolerance of opinions, which mark the society of a great capital. Commerce and manufactures are here nearly limited to the consumption of the inhabitants; the bookseller's trade is almost the only one that affords any great profits. The annual revenue of the city is about 41,300 pounds: it is derived from an impost on wines, the shore duties of Leith, the port of Edinburgh, duties on markets, ministers' stipends, landed property &c. The date of the original foundation of Edinburgh is not known, but there is reason to believe that it stands on the site of a Roman station called *Alata Castra*: some writers derive its name from Edwin, a Saxon prince who built a castle here in the early part of

Manners.

BOOK CLIV.

the seventh century: in a charter of King David, the town is mentioned by the name of *Edwinesburgh*. Many celebrated men were born in this city, as Hume, Robertson, Burney, Barclay and J. Blair. Edinburgh without its suburbs has 82,000 inhabitants.

Leith.

Leith on the Forth, two miles from the city, may be considered the port and suburb of Edinburgh: it contains 26,000 inhabitants. At *Linlithgow*, the chief town of a county which we must traverse in our way to Lanark, we shall notice only the ruins of the gothic castle in which Mary Stewart was born. *Lanark* or *Lancrk*, offers nothing remarkable, especially if we compare this little capital of a shire, to the beautiful and rich city of *Glasgow*. The foundation of this city is attributed to saint Mungo, or saint Kentigern, who established here a bishopric in 560, which nine centuries afterward, was exalted into an archbishopric.* Down to the seventeenth century it obtained at times important privileges from several of the sovereigns of the country, but before 1725 there were no manufactures here: the frequent visits of the northern Highlanders who came to Glasgow in search of a subsistence by labour, afforded a supply of workmen to the manufactories, and gave a spring to the industry of the place that has resulted in the prosperity of the present day. In 1755, Glasgow numbered but 23,000 inhabitants. In 1780, the number had increased to 43,000. In 1801, to 83,000. In 1811, to 110,000: In 1821, to 147,000: and finally since 1826 the population has exceeded 160,000, making it the largest city in Scotland.

Linlithgow.

Lanark.

Glasgow.

Increase of its population and industry.

This extraordinary increase is owing solely to the operation of its manufactures. In 1783 the establishment of a chamber of commerce and manufactures gave a more certain direction to the industry of the place: in 1792 steam machinery was used here for spinning cotton, and in 1801 it was employed with full success in weaving. In 1810, the American steamboats were first imitated in Europe by the construction of one of that species at Glasgow: at present there are forty of them belonging to this place.

* Capper. Topographical Dictionary.

It has been calculated that in late years the imports of colonial merchandize at this place have amounted in value annually to 2,600,000 dollars: more than 400 ships have entered the port, and above 600 vessels been employed in the exportation of goods to the annual value of more than 18,500,000 dollars. In the city and neighborhood are reckoned 32,000 cotton looms and 800 steam machines in foundries, manufactories and collieries. The largest part of the city stands in a plain on the right bank of the Clyde; the other part is situated upon an eminence; the suburbs occupy the left bank and communicate with the city by three bridges. Two streets crossing each other at right angles, run the whole length and breadth of the city. The first is half a league in length and eighty-five feet in width; the second is one third of a league in length and fifty-five feet in width: most of the other streets are spacious, well paved and furnished with sidewalks. Since 1817 they have been lighted with gas. The city is ornamented with a large number of modern edifices elegantly built: the Town Hall exhibits a beautiful façade ornamented with an Ionic colonnade: this edifice contains a statue of Pitt in white marble. The church of St Andrew is regarded as one of the finest specimens of the composite order in Scotland. The university is a gothic edifice with additions of modern date: it was founded in 1450 by William Turnbull, a bishop, and was endowed with extensive privileges by James II, and his successors: it has at present about 1600 students, and one of the richest museums in Europe. An institution unique in its kind was founded in 1796 by Professor John Anderson; it is designed to teach the useful sciences, and is specially intended for those students not destined to the university, and persons of both sexes who belong to the labouring classes. There are several other schools for teaching the ancient languages, and eighteen schools in which the poor may obtain instruction gratis. Here are three academical societies designed for the promotion of letters, science and the fine arts, all of which are well patronized. We must not bid adieu to this city without noticing the magnificent catholic church erected in 1815, and particularly the ancient cathedral, one of the noblest

Establishments for Instruction.

BOOK CLIV.

monuments of gothic architecture which the fury of the reformers left standing in Scotland. It stands on a hill in the centre of the city: the architecture is more remarkable for its massy style than for the elegance of its ornaments: the outside is majestic and imposing, and the interior is equally massive but not less grand: it is built upon arches which form a subterranean church.

Crossing an extensive meadow planted with trees on the right bank of the Clyde, which serves for a promenade to the inhabitants of Glasgow, we take the road to *Peebles*, a small and insignificant town, the capital of one of the smallest counties in Scotland. Going westward we arrive at *Ayr*, the ancient *Erigena*, on the seacoast, with a harbour in the Frith of Clyde. This little town is well built in the midst of a sterile and sandy region: a sort of bar renders the entrance of the harbour dangerous. North of this place, *Renfrewshire* called also *Strathgryfe*, contains two towns of some importance: along with these we must not place *Renfrew*, the chief town of the county, at the confluence of the Cart and the Clyde, where the waters are useful in the spinning of cotton. *Paisley*, which is thought to be the ancient *Vanduara*, lies a league south of the preceding, and enjoys a prosperity by means of its manufactures: 5000 cotton looms here occupy 29,000 persons: the whole population is estimated at 46,000. *Greenock*, at the mouth of the Clyde, was nothing more, at the end of the seventeenth century, than a village of fishermen: at present this town has several sugar refineries, soapworks and manufactures of cordage and pottery. The directors of the Scotch company trading to India and Africa have become sensible of the advantages of its port, and the town has at present more than 22,000 inabitants and many buildings of great elegance.

Peebles.

Renfrew.

North of the great canal which joins the Forth and Clyde, we meet, near the banks of the former river, with *Stirling*, the chief town of a county, called also *Striveling*, that is, *the field of battle*, a name that reminds us of the bloody combats fought in this neighbourhood, before the establishment of its manufactures. Cotton and woollen fabrics afford a considerable trade to this place: its an-

Stirling.

cient castle stands like a watch-tower on the east end of a rock. On the southern bank of the canal is *Falkirk*, a town of 4000 inhabitants: in the centre of this town the people have erected at their own expense, a pyramid 130 feet in height: this place was formerly resorted to annually by the bag-pipers to dispute the prize offered to the most skilful. This custom is now solemnized at Edinburgh. At a short distance from Falkirk, we come to *Carron*, in which are the most important foundries in Great Britain: they employ more than 2,000 workmen, and turn out each year above 4000 cannon of large calibre for foreign countries: here was invented that short species of cannon called *carronade*, from the name of the town.

Foundries of Carron.

Half a league from the right bank of the Forth, near its mouth, we shall discover on the summit of a hill, the ruinated tower of a castle erected by king Robert Bruce: on the slope beneath stands the handsome town of *Clackmannan*, the capital of a small county. Farther on we arrive at *Kinross*, a well-built town, and the capital of a county still smaller than the preceding, but covered with ancient ruins and edifices of the middle ages: on the banks of Loch Leven is still to be seen the castle of the last king of the Picts. In the maritime county of Fife, bounded on the south by the Frith of Forth, and on the north by the Frith of Tay, is *Dunfermline*, with a population of not less than 14,000: this town has manufactures of linen, which employ 1500 looms: here are also the ruins of the ancient palace of Malcolm II, in which Charles I was born. *St Andrews*, on the coast, gives its name to a spacious bay, and its university is the oldest in Scotland: it consists of three colleges, and the library contains 40,000 volumes: this is an ancient town: the tower and chapel of St Regulus or St Rule, which may be mentioned among its antiquities, were built in the 9th century. During the religious troubles which deluged Scotland with blood, the magnificent cathedral of this place which had stood for a century and a half, fell in a single day under the destroying hands of the reformers, and nothing remains of it but the fragment of a wall. The 5000 inhabitants of St Andrews are occupied in the manufacture of cloth and tennis balls: 9000 bales of these last are despatch-

Clackmannan.

Kinross.

BOOK CLIV.

ed every year. *Cupar* is the chief town of the county, and is of an ancient origin: although inconsiderable, it possesses an academy, a public library, a printing office, and many manufactures of cloth.

Cupar.

Forfarshire.

The county of *Angus* is called also *Forfarshire*, after the name of its capital, *Forfar*, which offers nothing curious except the remains of an edifice believed to have been once the residence of the ancient Scottish kings. Three important harbors assist the trade of this county: the most noted is that of *Dundee*, a town of 31,000 inhabitants, at the mouth of the Tay. On the coast of the North Sea is *Aberbrothock* or *Arbroath*, with 6000 inhabitants, and *Montrose* with 10,000.

Bervie.

In *Kincardine* or *Mearns*, is *Bervie* or *Inverbervie*, a small, but industrious town, where was made the first spinning machine ever seen in Scotland. Continuing along the coast, we arrive at the embouchure of the *Dee*, where we encounter

Aberdeen.

New Aberdeen, and near it, *Old Aberdeen*. The new town is the capital of a maritime county of the same name: its harbour is capacious and safe: 150 whale ships leave this port annually for the northern seas. Since a number of new streets have been constructed here, and a granite bridge of a single arch measuring 132 feet span has been erected, we may pronounce that these constructions with 20 churches and chapels, 4 hospitals, a university, a large house of correction, barracks and a theatre, make Aberdeen one of the handsomest towns in Scotland, while its manufactures of cotton place it in the rank of the most industrious.

The Lowlands.

Nearly all the territory which we have passed over from our entry into the Solway Frith till arriving at the Grampians, whose bluish summits we see stretching away to the north, belongs to the *Lowlands:* but if we wish to view the most characteristic portion of the kingdom, that portion whose wild aspect and manner inspired the poetical imagination of Ossian and the ancient bards, we must penetrate

Highlands.

into the *Highlands*, which contain those counties yet unvisited by us. The rude character with which they are stamped, constitutes their principal charm: their gloomy valleys, nearly all occupied by lakes or ravaged by torrents are, during several months in the year, deprived of the rays of the sun. In these almost desert regions the principal rivers

of Scotland hide their sources from the view of the traveller, while the mountaineer leads his flocks to pasture every day among them. As late as the commencement of the last century there existed no regular road into the Highlands: the paths which led from the Lowlands thither were impassable during the greater part of the year: the Highlanders separated from the remainder of the Scottish people, were ignorant of the resources of commerce, and altogether strangers to the benefits of agriculture, holding only remote communications with those counties in which civilization had extended its blessings. The British government could not behold with indifference an active and ignorant population roaming lawless among the mountains: the government, moved by policy rather than philanthropy, employed from 1726 to 1745 companies of soldiers to construct a line of commodious and spacious roads over this rocky region to the extent of 100 leagues: additions to this have since been made.

Manners of the people.

In travelling among the Highlands we are struck with the sight of wretched cabins and huts built of round stones and plastered with mud, with no roofing but sods or thatch. The interior of the best of these is divided into two apartments by a wicker partition: the smaller apartment being appropriated to the cattle and fowls, and the larger serving for dining room and bedchamber to the whole family: in the middle is the hearth, and over it hangs the pot in which the victuals are cooked: commonly a hole is cut in the roof to let out the smoke, but as this is not directly over the hearth, lest the rain should put out the fire, it happens that the greater part of the smoke fills the house and goes out at the door. The bed of the Highlander is composed of a pile of heath or fern with a woollen rug spread upon it. The food of these people is as simple as their manners, and consists of nothing besides oatmeal, milk, and a few fruits. Christmas is a time of great rejoicing, and on this occasion alone they indulge in the luxury of a slice of mutton or beef, which even the poorest will then strive to obtain. Before the introduction of sheep into the Highlands, every family found sufficient occupation to live; but since the change effected by uniting many small farms into large grazing establish-

ments, the people have been thrown into great distress, and thousands have been forced to quit the place of their nativity, and establish themselves in the uncultivated regions of America. The knowledge which has been spread among them by the exertions of late years, has given them some ideas of trade and industry, and helped the progress of agriculture. The chief wealth of the people consists in cattle, great numbers of which are sold: the crops of grain are sufficient for their bread and the distillation of whiskey, a liquor of which they are particularly fond. In some quarters they have begun to work mines and enter into the fisheries, and everything leads us to believe that by the help of the efforts which the British government is making for that purpose, the Highlands will become at some future day one of the richest portions of Great Britain. We shall give a sketch of this region so worthy of being known.

The isle of *Bute* in the Frith of Clyde, forms the county of this name along with the isle of *Arran*, a league to the south. The former is exposed to a mild and humid atmosphere: the thermometer here never sinks lower than 2 degrees below the freezing point: the surface is hilly, and the soil rocky in the north, but the southern part is fertile. The length of the island is 5 or 6 leagues, and the breadth not more than 2 leagues. Seven eighths of the land is the property of the earl of Bute. The inhabitants, to the number of 6000, are industriously employed in cultivating the soil, manufacturing cotton cloths and fishing for herrings. The island contains two parishes, a town and two small harbours, *Rothesay* and *Kerryeray*: here are Druidical temples and other antiquities, with a singular castle, which was formerly a royal residence. The island of *Arran* bears the reputation of having been the scene of the last days of Ossian: its chief town is *Lamlask*. The entire population of the island amounts to 7000 souls, divided between the parishes of *Kilbrich* and *Kilmory*.

Reascending the Frith of Clyde toward the north, and turning to the right, we arrive at the confluence of this river with the Leven, where we meet with *Dumbarton* and its old castle, 400 feet above the town: the most important manufactory here is one of glass, occupying 300 workmen. The

Dumbarton.

county, of which this is the chief town, contains toward the north, *Loch Lomond*, sprinkled with beautiful islands, and offering the most charming views: this fine sheet of water is narrow in the northern part, but widens in the south, where it extends among a long chain of mountains, overlooked by the majestic summit of Ben Lomond: toward this extremity it washes a fertile plain, and presents one of the finest prospects in the country. West of this lake lies the maritime county of Argyle, consisting of islands and tracts of the main land, intersected by lochs: in the southern part is a narrow extent of territory, called *Knapdale*, united to the Mull of Cantyre by an isthmus: in the west are the islands of *Ila* and *Jura*, the former with 10,000 inhabitants, and the latter with 1300: these are divided by a narrow channel. In the northwest, the island of Mull shows the cloudy summits of its mountains: it contains 6000 inhabitants. The chief town of this county is *Inverary*, an unimportant village, with a few manufactures in a languishing state: it stands near the mouth of the *Ary*, a stream which forms in this neighbourhood several fine cascades.

Loch Lomond.

Inverary.

We shall now leave on our left at the foot of Ben Lomond, the valley through which the Forth meanders towards the east: the sight of this river never fails to draw from the Scotchman an expression of admiration and respect; it is the Ganges of his country. The Teith, flowing out of *Loch Katrine* or *Catherine*, flows parallel to this river, and joins it after a course of 6 or 8 leagues. In *Perthshire* the hills are clad in a diversity of vegetation: the waving branches of the birch mingle with the green foliage of the majestic oak and the brown leaves of the ash; every part offers to the view the most picturesque scenes. In the district of *Athol*, the *Almond* falls in a cascade of 90 feet before it joins the Tay: farther distant, two large rocks unite in a natural bridge over the river. In the valley of Glendow, a bridge of a single arch is thrown across a gulf 80 feet deep, into which the waters of a stream plunge with a tremendous roar. The beauties of this region would, however, occupy us too long in the description, and moreover would excite little interest except among the natives of Scotland. Perth is wor-

View of the county of Perth.

BOOK CLIV.

thy of our notice and is surrounded with beautiful scenery: it has all the elegance of a regular built city, the principal streets crossing each other at right angles: after passing through the savage country watered by the Tay, it is not without astonishment that the traveller finds on the banks of this river, a beautiful city adorned with many public edifices, a theatre, an academy, with literary and learned societies, manufactures of cloth amounting to nearly 1,000,000 dollars, and a population of 20,000 souls.

Inverness.

To the west and north of Perthshire extends the county or shire of *Inverness*, the largest in Scotland, and containing the highest mountains in Great Britain, and those whose form and scenery are the most majestic. *Inverness*, the chief town, is large, well built, and situated near the sea at the bottom of a gulf, under the protection of a fort built by Oliver Cromwell. The river *Ness*, which gives name to the town, divides it into two parts: the ancient portion is on the right bank, and consists of buildings, whose dingy hue and antique style form a strong contrast with the modern edifices on the opposite side: many fine buildings, among which may be mentioned the court house, a gothic structure, and the hall in which the nobility of the northern counties meet every year, — an academy with 300 scholars, — a college, — a theatre, — a royal infirmary, — two libraries, — horticultural and agricultural societies, — others for the suppression of mendicity, for the education of the deaf and dumb, and poor Highlanders, — and for the distribution of the bible, — and lastly, a treasury office, all serve to create a high conception of the character of this place. Industry is not less active here than benevolence: Inverness is the central point of all the trade of the northern part of Scotland.

Skye.

The island of *Skye*, with a population of 15,000 souls, belongs to Inverness-shire: the principal town in the island is *Dunvegan*.

Banff.

Elgin.

The northern branches of the Grampians form the valley of the *Deveron*, a stream flowing into the Northern Ocean at *Banff*, the capital of a county, and one of the pleasantest towns in the north of Scotland. In the county of Murray is *Elgin*, 11 miles west of the preceding, an old and badly

built place, dating from the end of the 9th century. *Lairn*, on the Murray Frith, is a small and neat town, which, notwithstanding its unimportance, is the capital of a county. The town of *Cromarty*, hardly more important, has the same political rank: it is situated at the entrance of a deep bay, and has a large and safe harbour, and some manufactures of cloth, but little trade. *Tain*, on the Frith of Dornoch, has no trade or importance. *Ross-shire*, of which it is the capital, exhibits in the north and west a barren territory, mountains with lofty and broken summits, some of them covered with eternal snow, and heaps of rocks thrown together in confusion. The *Hebrides* or *Western Islands* are comprised in this county: their 70,000 inhabitants belong to the same race with the Scotch Highlanders: they speak their dialect, wear a similar dress, and observe the same customs, but are more uncivilized. Horned cattle, sheep, and fish, are their only articles of trade.

Lairn. Cromarty. Tain. Hebrides.

The county of *Sutherland*, lying north of the preceding, has for its chief town, *Dornoch*, once the residence of a bishop, but at present daily declining in importance. *Caithness*, a county separated from Sutherland in 1807, has a chain of hills marking this limit: it is washed on the east by the North Sea, and extends to the most northerly point of Scotland. Among its five towns may be mentioned *Thurso*, on the Bay of Dunnet, with 1700 inhabitants, considerable manufactures of cloth, and a small harbour, frequented by fishermen and coasting craft. *Wick*, on the opposite coast of the North Sea, subsists by the herring and cod fishery: it is less populous than the preceding, but has the rank of a royal burgh and chief town.

Dornoch. Wick.

The most northern county of Scotland is that of the *Orkneys*, which comprise these and the *Shetland Islands*. The Orkneys are 30 in number—*Pomona* or *Mainland*, *Hoy*, *North Ronaldsay*, *South Ronaldsay*, *Sanday*, *Stronsay*, *Eday*, *Westray*, *Shapinsay*, *Burray*, and *Wals*, are the chief. Their whole population amounts to 25,000. Known to the ancients, they were a subject, with them, of much error and fable. Pliny numbers them at 40. Solinus affirms that they had not a single inhabitant, and were covered with grass

Orkneys.

BOOK CLIV.

and bulrushes.* According to Ossian, they once formed a powerful kingdom, from which statement we may gather an idea of the power of the petty kings of Scotland in his time. It seems probable that the Picts held these islands till the overthrow of their dominion by Kenneth II, in 838. They remained attached to the crown of Scotland till the end of the 11th century, and towards the middle of the 13th, they fell a second time into the possession of this kingdom, but they were not finally regarded as constituting a part of the kingdom, till the marriage of James III, with Margaret of Norway.† The people of the Orkneys speak English, but with the disagreeable Scotch accent: the wealthy classes are polite and hospitable, and the poor very superstitious. They are habituated to climbing the rocks and navigating the dangerous seas of these islands, and in consequence, furnish excellent sailors to the British navy. The exports from these islands are cattle, swine, salt fish, butter, and lard: these are bartered for the fuel and metals wanting in the islands, wine, tobacco, cloth, and ironmongery. *Kirkwall*, on the island of Pomona, is the capital of the whole county: it is a little dirty place, thought to have been founded in 1138, by Rognwald, Earl of Norway: it exhibits the ruins of an ancient fortress, and of an old palace of the Earls of the Orkneys: the cathedral is a fine gothic structure, and the harbour, which lies within a safe and commodious road, is defended by a fortification erected under Cromwell.

Kirkwall.

Shetland.

The inhabitants of the Shetland Islands are a strong, well made, dark complexioned race. They are not less hospitable than their neighbours of the Orkneys, but are considered more hardy and industrious. They marry very young, and a bachelor is rare among them. In these islands a little hut, a rug, a cow, a pot for boiling victuals, a spade and two or three fishing nets, make up the whole furniture of a

* This author has been named, with reason, *Pliny's Ape:* his book, entitled *Polyhistor*, is little more than a transcript of the work of the great Roman naturalist.

† See Capper's Topographical Dictionary. Blair's Chronological Tables, and A Sporting Tour through the Northern parts of England, and great part of the Highlands of Scotland, by E. Thornton.

domestic establishment. Coarse cloths, woollen hosiery and fish, constitute an annual exportation estimated at 20,000 dollars. The laws, manners, language, and costume of the inhabitants, are the same as in Scotland. The population is about 25,000. *Mainland* is the most considerable of the Shetland Islands, and Pomona of the Orkneys. *Yell, Unst, Whalsay, Bressay, Burray, House, Trondray, Fetlar, Papa-Stour, Mickle-Rhoe, Little-Rhoe, Skerries* and *Noss*, are next in consequence, with the little islands of *Foula* and *Fair*, lying between this group and the Orkneys. *Lerwick* and *Scalloway*, their only towns, are both situated on the shore of Mainland. Many conjectures have been entertained as to the origin of the inhabitants of these islands, but it is probable that they came from Norway. Their archipelago was annexed to the crown of Scotland at the same time with the Orkneys.

Lerwick.

Scalloway.

Scotland is the most enlightened of the British kingdoms: its scholars amounted in 1824 to 191,000, and the colleges of the country numbered more than 4500 students. The nature of the instruction given in these institutions is what alone can secure them any distinction. In this country it is not less extensive and liberal than in the universities of England.

BOOK CLV.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.— British Islands.

SECTION III. DESCRIPTION OF IRELAND.

BOOK CLV.

General view.

PLACED under a foggy and cloudy sky, Ireland was despised by the Roman power, as a territory defended by wintry tempests. The name of *Hibernia* bestowed upon it by Cæsar, explains to us the idea formed of the country by the ancients.* The history of this island is wrapped in obscurity and error. Strabo paints its inhabitants in no very flattering colours: according to this geographer they were more savage than the *Britanni* their neighbors: they were cannibals, and looked upon it as a meritorious action to devour the carcasses of their parents: connexions forbidden by the ties of consanguinity, such as the union of a brother and sister, or of a son and mother, were not held in disrepute by them.† If these statements, which Strabo utters with some doubting, were well founded, we should regard the Irish as the most unfitted for civilization of all the European tribes. The partisans of religious intolerance who in both houses of the British parliament so long denied to the Irish catholics the right of sharing in the national representation, would have been naturally led to regard them as a race destined to bondage, and the parliament would

* Tacitus likewise gives it this name in the life of Agricola. Pomponius Mela calls it *Juverna*.

† Strabo, Lib. IV, cap. V, § 5. He calls the island *Jerne*. Diodorus Siculus names it *Iris*.

have refused to sanction a measure otherwise demanded by the voice of justice and humanity. The English writers have too long been under the influence of their antipathy to a people who remained inaccessible to the religious reformation, and have represented them as the dregs of the human race, while the Irish writers, with a contrary exaggeration, launch out into praises of their ancestors, and exalt the virtues of their contemporaries. The humiliating laws which have for several centuries oppressed this people, have also had a pernicious effect upon their character, still we shall refrain from undue indulgence or severity in passing a judgment upon them. A short time since they were stamped with a mark of reprobation: they were a conquered people: now they are free: new ties attach them to the mother country: but proud of their emancipation, they seem to be more turbulent than ever, like a scholar escaped from the hands of his pedagogue. We may however anticipate for them a complete regeneration: the light of knowledge once spread abroad among them, will direct them in the way of their true interests; industry will receive a new impulse, and England will derive from an act of justice, new materials of power.

Ancient Inhabitants.

If we may believe Ussher,* Keder,† Warræus,‡ and other antiquaries, the history of Ireland may be traced back five hundred years before the Christian era. A colony arriving from Scythia by the way of Spain, settled here at this date, and introduced the Phenician language and a taste for letters among the Celtic inhabitants. This kind of civilization hardly accords with the relation of Strabo, who lived in the time of Augustus. The first of the above named writers pretends that christianity was introduced into the island a short time after the death of its founder, but a more reasonable belief is that it was first propagated there in the 5th century, first by the exertions of Palladius, the legate of Pope Celestine, and shortly after by St Patrick the first

* Author of the work upon the religion of the ancient Irish and British, and of the *Veterum Epistolarum Hibernicarum* Sylloge.

† Recherches des medailles frappées en Irlande avant que Henri II s'emparat de ce royaume.

‡ Dissertations sur les antiquités de l'Irlande.

BOOK CLV.

Language.

bishop of Ireland. The *Gaelic* or ancient Celtic was always the prevailing language, and we have seen that two of its dialects have been preserved in Scotland: the third, called *Erse, Irish*, or *Erinach*, is the dialect of the inhabitants of Ireland: in this idiom the people still give this island the name of *Erin*.

Ancient race of Kings.

In the eighth century this country, governed by an ancient race of kings, was already in possession of several arts, since we find they used coined money of silver in their trading: still they were ignorant of the art of building with stone, as the Danes and Norwegians, then called *Osterlings*, arrived at this period, made settlements on the coast, and built solid and regular edifices: before this time the inhabitants had been content with wretched wooden constructions. These foreigners laid the foundations of Dublin, Waterford, Wexford, Cork, and Limerick, but as they dwelt in greater numbers about Dublin than in their other territories, this region received from the natives the name of *Fingal*, that is, the *strangers' land*. In the twelfth century, Ireland was divided into five kingdoms called *Ulster, Leinster, Meath, Connaught*, and *Munster*, these were subdivided into several small principalities, probably the tributaries of each crown. Henry II, at his accession to the throne of England, formed the project of uniting Ireland to his dominions, but wanted a pretext for the usurpation, this however soon offered itself: Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinster, a cruel tyrant, had been driven from his kingdom for stealing the wife of O'Roisk, prince of Bressing.* He took refuge at the court of Henry and solicited his friendship, offering to submit to him as a vassal in recompense for the assistance necessary to regain his crown. Henry, who had no need of persuasion, accepted the offer, despatched an army to Ireland, and re-established Dermot on the throne. This however, was but a single step towards his object: he obtained from pope Adrian, a bull annexing Ireland to his crown, passed over to the island with the

First cities.

Ireland under Henry II.

* The prefix *Mac* signifies *son* or *grandson*, and is a mark of nobility: formerly none except the chieftains and those who traced their origin to a high antiquity, were allowed the distinction of this name.

flower of his nobility and army, subdued the kings and petty chieftains who still resisted, and profiting by their divisions, caused himself to be acknowledged sovereign of Ireland. This title was in 1184, confirmed upon his son John who established himself in the island, and gave the inhabitants a new code of laws.

The Irish however, chagrined that their country which had been for so long a time divided into five kingdoms, should now be no more than a single principality, took advantage of the successes of Robert Bruce in Scotland, to offer the crown of Ireland to the brother of this prince. Robert granted their wishes, landed in the island, obliged the English to shut themselves up in Dublin, and caused his brother Edward to be crowned at Dundalk. But this prince soon drew upon himself the hatred of his subjects, and in a battle with the English he fell, sword in hand. After this event which happened in 1318, Ireland was rent by discords and rebellion: three centuries passed before the English power was firmly established and consolidated. Henry VIII, found that in order to flatter the self love of the Irish it was necessary to erect their island into a kingdom: he therefore took the title of King of Ireland. Down to the reign of Elizabeth the religious reformation had made its way quietly into those parts of the island inhabited by the English, but the court of Rome and the House of Austria by transmitting money, arms and troops, kept up the enmity between the Irish and English, which had broken out anew under the impulse of religion. Elizabeth deprived the catholics of Ireland of all public employments, and James I, irritated by their obstinacy, confiscated the lands of the insurgents and divided them among the partizans of the court. If the spirit of religious toleration could have exercised any influence in the century which produced the reformation, Ireland would not have been the theatre of unceasing troubles, but would have become slowly enlightened, and proceeded with sure steps in the career of improvement. We should not have seen in 1641 the partial execution of a plot which renewed in Ireland the horrible massacre of the Sicilian vespers: 40,000 Englishmen, according to Hume, fell by the daggers of the Irish catho-

Under Henry VIII.

Under Elizabeth.

Under James I.

BOOK CLV.

lics, although other writers fix the number no higher than 10,000. Be the truth where it will, this fatal occurrence cemented to the latest times the hatred of two nations formed for union.

Under Charles I.

The Irish, of course, took the part of the unfortunate Charles I. Cromwell felt himself called upon in 1653, to avenge his countrymen by carrying fire and sword into the desert extremities of Connaught, proclaiming that every catholic taken without the limits of the province should be put to death without trial, and his property divided among the partizans of the English. Encouraged by the embittered feelings of the Irish, James II, dreaming of the recovery of a crown which he had abandoned, hazarded the fate of this country by seeking here defenders whose courage he was incapable of animating. At the head of an army nearly equal to that of William, a single defeat overthrew his hopes, and although he complained of the French for not rendering assistance, what confidence could he inspire into those who fought for him? Would a prince who possessed any courage have abandoned so precipitately, the field of battle and his kingdom? Ireland had not yet attained to a state of quiet when the example of the French revolution excited anew those pretensions hardly laid at rest. Anarchy was organized under leaders, the lower classes took up arms, the soldier rebelled against his commander, the servant plotted against the life of his master, the peasant armed himself against his landlord, terror spread among all the friends of order: the magistrate feared to raise the sword of justice and whoever spoke in the name of the law, fell by the steel of the assassin. In this state of feverish anxiety, the Irish demanded succour from the French Directory; a French squadron eluded the English fleet and anchored in Bantry Bay, but a storm hindered the debarkation, and the ships were forced to put to sea. In spite of this misfortune, the rebellion was organized, and exploded in the middle of the year 1798: some French frigates landed a thousand infantry and some munitions of war in the bay of Killala, and a few insurgents joined this handful of soldiers, but being attacked by a superior force of the English they were made prisoners.

Under James II, and William.

Rebellion.

After a third expedition which did not result more happily, the Directory abandoned the Irish malecontents to their own exertions: they were soon reduced to obedience, and upon the proposal of Mr Pitt in 1801, the Irish parliament was united to that of England, and both sat together for the first time on the twenty-second of January 1801, at Westminster.

Parliament.

The parliament which met at Dublin consisted of 300 members: at present the Irish deputies to the British parliament are only 100: and 28 peers sit in the House of Lords. The Lord Lieutenant or viceroy is nominated by the crown, and, since the union, Ireland has been governed by the laws of England.

Moral condition of Ireland.

Ireland is certainly less enlightened than England, and still less so than Scotland; nevertheless the situation of the country in this respect has been much exaggerated. There are fewer scholars here than in the other kingdoms, but nearly as many as in France. What chiefly distinguishes this country from others is the nature of the instruction imparted: the great majority of the people, under the influence of the clergy, poor, unenlightened and full of prejudices, are kept in an afflicting superstition, which is the sole principle of the ignorance of which they are accused. The elementary instruction of the popular classes should not be restricted to reading and writing: religion should teach them the extent of their duties, based upon the principles of gospel morality; but where shall they find the lights necessary to their situation, if not in the books designed to enlighten the christian? The catholic clergy of Ireland do not permit the people to read the scriptures, but by their absurd writings destined to perpetuate superstition and ignorance, they fashion them to that sort of independence, which makes the Irishman only a blind instrument of hatred against England, a pretended christian ever ripe for revolt. Nevertheless there were estimated to be in 1824, more than 560,000 children who attend school; the mode of instruction only, we repeat, is to be blamed. The great establishments for education are not free from reproach: those which ornament Dublin, in spite of their outward show of luxury, are very ordinary: no distinguished work has ever proceeded from its Protestant uni-

Scholars.

BOOK CLV.

versity. Too magnificently endowed, like the reformed church, with property gained in the unjust way of confiscation, we must remark with an Irish author,* that this learned body suffers from a superfluity of the good things of this world, like the English ecclesiastics: if science languishes when in poverty, she slumbers also in the lap of abundance. The island possesses but a single establishment for ecclesiastical education, the college of St Patrick at *Maynooth*, under the care of the Jesuits, and designed to make Catholic priests: this institution sends forth nothing but scholars imbued with prejudices and prepossessions unfavorable to England. In the same small town is also a college for lay Catholics, founded by subscription in 1802. At Belfast and Cork, there have been colleges established within a few years, but these are designed only for the rich: the poorer classes demand much greater ameliorations. The progress of improvement, so slow in Ireland, will probably be hastened by the effects of the emancipation. Four benevolent societies for the education of the poor, that of the Anabaptists, that of Dublin, the Hibernian Society of Cork, and the society of the same name in London, must necessarily exert a great and increasing influence, and the memory of their founders will be held in veneration when the people, having become more industrious, no longer grovel in abject poverty: when the great proprietors, attaching themselves to a country more worthy of interest, cease to spend their revenues in England, while their estates are confided to agents occupied in harassing and plundering the unfortunate farmer: when the Anglican clergy, the possessors of extensive territories, shall understand how honorable is the employment of instructing those people whom they now abandon, in order to enjoy, in indolence, the pleasures of the great metropolis of the three kingdoms.

Charitable societies.

Ecclesiastical divisions.

Ireland is divided into four ecclesiastical provinces or archbishoprics, *Armagh*, *Dublin*, *Cashel* and *Tuam*, and into 19 suffragan bishoprics. The archbishop of Dublin is primate of Ireland; that of Armagh has also the title of pri-

* Mr John O'Driscol, in his work entitled Views of Ireland. 2 vols. 8vo. Lond. 1823.

mate, but he is also metropolitan of the kingdom: there are also 33 deaneries and 34 archdeaconries. The Anglican bishops are nominated by the king, and paid from the revenues of the grand seal. The importance of their income may be estimated from the fact that the Protestant clergy, composed of 1700 individuals, absorb, in salaries, a sum equal to 6 millions of dollars, nearly as much as the whole clergy of France. Each archbishop receives annually from 50,000 to 70,000 dollars.

Industry

Ireland was early distinguished for its industry, and, but for political troubles, would have reached a high degree of importance in this respect. In the manufacture of cloths it has obtained a great superiority. Under the reign of Henry VIII, it was less famous for linens than for woollens, but under that of William III, such heavy duties were laid upon the last that they were abandoned, and the people turned their attention to linen and thread. The amount of exports in this branch of industry is valued at 14,500,000 dollars. The cotton manufactures have not become so important, but since the last century they have shown a constant increase, and the quantity of cotton they annually consume is estimated at 6,000,000 pounds.

Since the shackles which ruined the woollen manufactures has been removed, they have applied themselves to the making of coarse stuffs, and at present export 5,460,000 yards: the silk manufactories consume annually 64,000 pounds of material, and the distilleries produce above 12,000,000 gallons of spirits. The fertility of the soil, and the abundance of meadows, enable them to export to England each year 15,000,000 bushels of grain, 63,000 horned cattle, 72,000 sheep, 65,000 swine, and 3000 horses. The value of the exports to Great Britain cannot be less than 30,000,000 dollars, and all the exports to different quarters of the globe exceed 37 millions.

Number of workmen.

The various branches of industry employ 7,500 weavers, 2,500 cotton spinners, 8,000 persons for the different preparations demanded in both these fabrications, 3,500 workmen in the silk mills, 12,000 for the preparation and manufacture of wool, and 49,000 men in the sea and river fishery. But agriculture and manufactures are far from being suffi-

BOOK CLV.

cient to maintain the whole labouring population, since, according to an enumeration made in 1821, among 3,931,000 labourers from 15 to 70 years of age, there were 1,094,000 out of employment.

Administrative divisions.

The five kingdoms which anciently divided Ireland, form at present four grand provinces, which have retained the names of four of these kingdoms, namely, *Ulster* in the north, *Connaught* in the west, *Leinster* in the east, and *Munster* in the south. They form 32 counties, of which 9 belong to the first, 5 to the second, 12 to the third, and 6 to the last. These divisions we shall pass in review in the order of their enumeration.

Londonderry.

At the extremity of *Lough Foyle*, a sort of gulf opening into the sea, and receiving the waters of a small stream, stands *Londonderry*, or simply, *Derry*, the chief city of a county, and a place of importance: it is regularly built with the four principal streets crossing each other at right angles: here is an elegant cathedral, a prison lately built, and an episcopal palace. The situation of the port, at the mouth of the river, is advantageous for the commerce of the place, which is maintained by the importation of colonial goods, and the exportation of domestic cloths to America and the East Indies. This city sustained a famous siege in 1688 against James II: all the officers of the garrison had been killed in the breaches, and the besieged had no resource left but to capitulate, when a minister, named Walker, took the command and inspired them with such bravery, that the assailants were unable to effect the capture of the city, and, the English fleet arriving to their support, James was forced to raise the siege. In the county of *Antrim*, whose chief town offers nothing remarkable, *Carrickfergus* is situated at the entrance of a bay called *Belfast Lough*: this town constitutes a particular jurisdiction, and holds a court of assize independent of the county courts, which also meet there: its harbour is chiefly frequented by fishing boats. In 1760, it was captured and pillaged by a celebrated French privateer named Therrot: its population is about 8000. *Belfast*, at the bottom of this gulf, is thrice as populous, which may be ascribed to its important linen and cotton manufactures

Carrickfergus.

Belfast.

at the eastern extremity of this town is an ancient bridge of 21 arches, and 2500 feet in length. BOOK CLV.

Lisburn, on the left bank of the Lagan, a river flowing out of Lough Neagh and falling into Belfast Lough, is noted for its manufactures, its charitable institutions, its high church tower, and its market ornamented with a cupola: it has 6000 inhabitants. *Armagh*, the capital of a county, was formerly a considerable city, and the metropolis of a kingdom: its university was renowned, and had once 7000 students: this place having fallen into decay, it was restored by the munificence of one of its archbishops, Richard Robinson, who repaired the cathedral, rebuilt nearly the whole city, erected a superb palace and a fine observatory, and enriched the school and library. On a neighbouring height formerly stood the castle inhabited by the kings of Ulster. *Downpatrick*, near Strangford Lough, is the spot, as we are told, where St Patrick died: his tomb here is held in great veneration. *Neway*, situated near a river and canal, is the most commercial place in all the county of Down.

Lisburn. Armagh. Downpatrick.

Connaught, the smallest province of Ireland, is a territory intersected by loughs, bogs, and mountains: agriculture is in a languishing state, and the population is both smaller, and more wretched than in the other provinces. Here are, however, four capitals of counties, somewhat important. *Sligo*, at the bottom of a bay, has a harbour capable of receiving vessels of 200 tons. *Castlebar*, watered by a little stream, carries on a great trade in linen: this is a town consisting of one long street: the French took it in 1798. *Galway*, which is believed to stand on the site of an ancient and mean city, called *Ansoba*, occupies the bottom of a bay, to which it gives its name: it is surrounded with ruined walls, and consists of old buildings, but within a few years, new ones have been taking their places: the cathedral is handsome, and the college elegant. This town is important for its trade and manufactures, and contains an exchange, barracks, and other public buildings: its harbour is safe and convenient, and defended by a fort.

Galway.

We shall begin our description of the chief cities in the province of *Leinster*, with the capital of Ireland. Let the reader imagine at the extremity of a bay, which might be com-

Dublin.

BOOK CLV.

pared to the bay of Naples, if the sky of Ireland resembled that of Italy, a great city divided into two equal parts by the river Liffey: let him conceive on the north and west of this capital, a gently rising eminence, and in the south the delightful view of the mountains of Wicklow, and some idea may be formed of the beauty of its situation. The quadrangular form of Dublin occupies on each side an extent of one league, and contains within its limits 17,000 houses, two cathedrals, 20 protestant parish churches, 16 catholic chapels, including the metropolitan chapel, a French protestant chapel, a Dutch and Danish chapel, a synagogue, and divers other houses of religious worship. Most of the streets have been improved by successive enlargements, and are paved and well lighted. The city is adorned with many beautiful structures: the custom house is a magnificent building with four façades, the principal one ornamented by a neat cupola, and a statue of commerce; it cost not less than 500,000 pounds sterling: the church of St Werburgh is an elegant structure: its portal, and spire of 150 feet elevation, are admired for their lightness: the exchange, which was first opened in 1779, and was built by a lottery, at an expense of 185,000 dollars, presents on its main front three open entrances upon a peristyle surmounted with a dome, sustained by 12 pillars, and forming a circular promenade: opposite the northern entrance is a bronze statue of George III, on a pedestal of white marble: the courts of justice have a grand extent of architecture, and a dome overlooking the whole city: the castle, or palace of the Lord Lieutenant, does not correspond to the beauty of these edifices: the eye may discover it to be an ancient fortress converted to a new purpose, but the interior is highly magnificent. There are other structures remarkable on different accounts, as the cathedral of St Patrick, one of the oldest buildings of the city; it was erected by archbishop Comyn, in 1190, ornamented with a tower in 1370, and surmounted by a spire in 1750: the old Parliament House now serves for the national bank: the buildings of Trinity College, or the university, have all the magnificence of a royal dwelling; they comprise a chapel, a refectory, halls for students, a lecturing theatre, a library, and anatomical halls, containing a superb collec-

Edifices.

tion of waxen models. The law college, or King's Inn Temple, is also worthy of mention. At the west end of the city is the Royal Hospital of Kilmainham, founded by Charles II, upon the plan of the Chelsea Hospital, for the invalids of the Irish army. Among all the benevolent institutions we shall only notice the Insane Hospital, founded by the celebrated Dean Swift, and the Blue Coat Hospital, designed for the education of poor children. The number of charity schools is considerable, and they are supported by the different parishes of each communion. *St Stephen's Green* is the largest place of its kind in Dublin, and is nearly half a league in circumference: it is a beautiful square of greensward, surrounded with a double row of trees, and the centre is decorated with an equestrian statue of George II. We must not omit to mention also the extensive royal domain called *Phenix Park*, from a marble column surmounted by an image of this fabulous bird: here stands a monument to the Duke of Wellington. Within the same enclosure, but on the right bank of the Liffey, is a military hospital. A monument to the memory of Nelson stands in front of the post office.

Public walks.

The constructions necessary to the commercial prosperity of Dublin have been carried on with no less perseverance and zeal than those designed for its embellishment: such as a great canal, extending from the city to the river Shannon, and connecting the navigation of the Irish Sea with that of the Atlantic Ocean: a wall, 30 feet thick and ten in height, above high water at the entrance of the bay, to hinder the joining of two sand banks called the *North* and *South Bull*: a light-house: the *casoon*, a circular building, which appears to rise out of the waves: the new basin, for the reception of packets arriving daily from England, and sheltering the shipping, which in the bay are exposed to the east and northeast winds: other basins, capable of containing many thousand vessels;—finally, the whole extent of the city, along the river, bordered with quays, all show, that nothing useful has been neglected. Scarcely any city in Europe, of its size, abounds more in useful and elegant structures than the metropolis of Ireland.

Canals, &c.

BOOK CLV.

Police.

The government and police of Dublin are entrusted to the Lord Mayor who is assisted by a *Recorder*, two *Sheriffs*, twenty-four *Aldermen*, and a municipal *Council*: the guard under the direction of the magistrates is composed of forty cavalry and 400 infantry, who station sentinels at every convenient post: they are not permitted to go without the *Circular Road*, which forms a promenade around the city.

Industry.

Dublin has manufactures of linen, cotton, woollen, and silk. Its imports must be considerable, seeing that the duties paid at the custom house amount annually to more than four million dollars.

History of Dublin.

This city has borne different names: Ptolemy calls it *Ascled*: subsequently it went by the name of *Auliana*, from the daughter of Alpinnus, who was drowned in the Liffey: more recently it was called *Dublana* and *Dubleana*, signify- the *black lake of the sea*: in the Gaelic idiom, it was named *Bally-Ath-Cliath*, that is, the *city of hurdle-ford*, because its inhabitants used hurdles in fishing, a sort of instrument still in use on many parts of the British coasts, and even upon those of France. In the time of Ptolemy it was probably nothing more than a cluster of wretched fishermen's huts, since we find that as late as the twelfth century, although it was the finest city in the kingdom of Leinster, and contained many stone buildings, it was so inconsiderable that Henry II, who took possession of it, gave it as a new-year's present to his subjects of Bristol. It did not increase till a century later: under the reign of Elizabeth it received some embellishments: Charles II enlarged it, but the civil wars ruined Dublin to such a degree that in the beginning of the eighteenth century it was spoken of as one of the poorest cities in Europe, and it is only within fifty years that its trade has elevated it to the rank it now occupies. It was the birthplace of Ussher, Swift and Sheridan.

Drogheda.

After this beautiful capital, the other cities will interest us but little. In the county of Louth, is *Drogheda*, the most important town; it is rich and well built: the mouth of the Doyne here forms a good harbour. Near the town on the bank of the river stands the obelisk of Ollbridge erected in memory of the victory gained by Wiliam III

over James II. *Kildare*, another capital of a county, was formerly a considerable place; but the civil wars of the seventeenth century ruined it: at present its chief support is found in the horse races which take place four times a year, in a plain in the vicinity called *Carragh*. On the river Nore is *Kilkenny*, one of the most neat, pleasant and industrious towns in Ireland: its gates, towers, old bastions, churches, abbeys and other edifices assure us that it must once have been much more important than at the present day.

Kildare.

Kilkenny.

The province of *Munster* is not inferior in population to that of Ulster: it contains more towns of importance than the other divisions of Ireland. Crossing the river Shannon by a bridge of 19 arches at *Killaloe* in the county of *Clare*, and following the left bank of the river, we arrive at Limerick, a flourishing city with handsome streets, fine quays, a cathedral remarkable for its great antiquity, public edifices of much elegance, extensive barracks of infantry and cavalry, and a convenient harbour open to ships of 300 tons, which may come as far up as the custom house. The city is divided into three parts, the *English Town*, the *Irish Town*, and *Newton Perry*, a new quarter built of brick, but with elegance, and bearing the name of the projector. Toward the southeast, a league from the left bank of the Suir, is the ancient city of *Iernis*: with hardly 4000 inhabitants, it contains a handsome cathedral in the Greek style, schools, barracks, and a large hospital. Two majestic ruins give it an aspect highly picturesque: these are the remains of the old cathedral on the top of a rock, and near them are the relics of a famous abbey once the residence of the kings of Munster. A few leagues farther down is *Clonmel*, a town containing 8000 souls, and the birthplace of Laurence Sterne: it is elegantly built on the left bank of the Suir which flows under a bridge of twenty arches.

Limerick.

Cashel.

Killarney, a handsome town, and the capital of the county of *Kerry*, contains within its walls 5000 souls. The beauty of the lake in this neighborhood collects here great numbers of those idle strollers so common among the English: the lake is worthy of the reputation it enjoys: it is 3½ leagues in length and a league wide in the broadest part: it consists

Killarney.

BOOK CLV.

of three separate parts, called the *Upper*, *Middle* and *Lower lakes*, of which the last is the largest and is two leagues in extent. The lake of Killarney is surrounded by steep mountains, one of which named *Mangerton*, has at the summit a circular pond of enormous depth; from this pond after heavy rains a beautiful cascade falls, while a rock called the *eagle's nest* returns so loud an echo that the blast of a horn sounds like the concert of a hundred instruments, and the report of a musket like the prolonged roar of thunder. The lake receives from every side the waters of twenty small streams which here flow amid fields and meadows, and along deep woods and thickets impenetrable to the rays of the sun, or fall in foaming cascades; the most remarkable of these is that of *O'Sullivan* which leaps with a horrible roar from a bed of verdure seventy feet in height. Islands covered with the freshest vegetation animate and vary the limpid surface of these three lakes: first are the islands of *Ronayn*, next the island of *Dennis*, of *Innisfallen*, where the ruins of a celebrated abbey founded in the sixth century still brave the assaults of time, that of *Ross* containing rich veins of copper and lead and an ancient castle; lastly the island called *O'Donaghoe's prison*. The waters which flow out rapidly, form on leaving the lower lake the little river Lean which falls into Dingle Bay.

Cork.

Cork, the capital of a county and of the province, is, after Dublin, the most important city in Ireland: its public edifices, simple in their architecture, but vast and convenient, give it a rank among the finest cities of the kingdom. It contains two theatres and two handsome squares, one of which serving as a parade ground for the review of the garrison, is decorated with an equestrian statue of George II. An exchange, a learned society, and several benevolent institutions attest its commercial importance, and the intelligence and philanthropy of its inhabitants. Situated at the embouchure of the Lee in the bottom of a deep bay, of which the shores are indented by harbours, and the middle occupied by a large island, this city is well defended by fortifications: its harbour, renowned for its safety, is above three leagues long and two wide. Cork furnishes nearly all the immense quantity of salt provisions used by the British navy

and army. *Kinsale*, to the south of Cork, occupies a remarkable situation: it stands upon a mountain, and the principal street makes the circuit of the town, and receives at a great number of points the extremities of all the other streets: the harbour is circular and sheltered by hills: it is sufficiently spacious to contain large fleets; a fort built by Charles II defends the entrance, and in time of war it is visited by ships returning from Asia and America, but the prosperity of Cork has deeply injured its commerce: at present it subsists by fishing, and employs annually more than 300 vessels in this business: during the fine season it is much frequented for sea bathing, and notwithstanding its decay, has not less than 10,000 inhabitants. It was here that James II landed on his return from France in 1688. *Youghall*, another maritime town, 10 leagues east of Cork, is a little less populous than the preceding: a shoal at the entrance of the harbour prevents large vessels from entering it. *Waterford*, at the bottom of a bay, where the waters of the Suir and Barrow unite, is free from the inconvenience of Youghall: and has a harbour advantageously situated for commerce: loaded vessels may come up to a long and wide quay at the town, and there are 70 sail employed here in the Newfoundland Bank fishery: but as a balance to these advantages, Waterford consists of nothing but narrow streets, and the air of the place is unwholesome.

Kinsale.

Waterford.

General view of Ireland.

Although Ireland is inferior to England in point of education, industry, commerce, and especially agriculture; — although the wretched Irish labourer has no food beside that root which has gained for this country the name of the *Land of Potatoes*, yet the island possesses the fruitful germ of future prosperity; a proof of this may be found in the increase of its products within less than half a century, particularly that of its population. In 1726 the number was 2,309,000. In 1827 it amounted to 7,672,000.* A more recent enumeration carries the amount to 8,500,000. We thus have the extraordinary fact of a population nearly quadrupling in less than a century: this would imply an immensity of

Increase of population.

* According to M. Cesar Moreau, French consul at London.

BOOK CLV.

resources, or a great depopulation during the troubles and revolutions which have so long agitated the country.

One would be disposed to think that the humidity of the atmosphere which maintains so fresh a vegetation in Ireland had also an effect in purifying the blood: few people are so handsome as the Irish: this remark applies not only to the higher classes, but in the country may be found under the rags of squalid poverty, tall and robust men, and females whose regular features and blooming complexions might be the envy of the belle of Dublin. The Irish nobility, disdaining generally all productive occupations, addict themselves to luxury and expense, but the wealthiest part of the nation is composed of numerous English and Scotch families belonging principally to the manufacturing and trading class, and dwelling chiefly upon the eastern and northern coasts of the island. The population of Ireland is composed of the great mass of the aborigines, separated from the rest of the inhabitants by their manner of living, their language and their degradation, and habituated to the oppressions of their landlords: — of the wealthy Irish whose manners and language do not differ from those of the English: — of Scotch presbyterians, the descendants of those who fled from the persecution under James I, and his successors, and settled with their manufactures on the northern shores of the island; and of English traders who have spread business and activity over the eastern shores.

Celebrated Men.

Ireland, as may be judged by the names which we have had occasion to cite in describing the cities, has produced a great number of celebrated men. In the 7th century the subtilties of scholastic theology had acquired a reputation for some of her ecclesiastics, but the troubles which distracted the country prevented literature and science from resuming their empire here till the 17th century: at that epoch, archbishop *Ussher* obtained a distinction for his useful labours: *Boyle* extended the sphere of physical science: *Steele* associated his pen with that of Addison: *Congreve* enriched the theatrical repository with several witty comedies, some of which are still acted: *Swift* gained from Voltaire the title of the *Rabelais of good society: Sloane*, an able physician, cultivated botany with success; *Berkeley* applied him-

self to the study of the exact sciences, and shed new light upon metaphysics: *Sterne*, by the originality which marks his writings, gained an European reputation. *Parnell* acquired celebrity by his light and playful poems, and *Goldsmith*, as a poet, novelist, historian, and naturalist: while *Burke*, *Sheridan*, *Flood*, *Grattan*, and many others have shone in the halls of legislation.

Advantageous position of the British Islands.

The geographical position of the British Islands has necessarily raised the commercial power of the United Kingdom to a degree of prosperity beyond any thing which antiquity exhibits to us. It has long been customary to compare the naval power of Great Britain to that of Carthage, but nothing will establish the pretended resemblance. Seated upon a continent, Great Britain would never have attained the preponderance she now exercises. If her two great islands formed but one, the same advantages would not have arisen. The extent of her coasts maintains an immense maritime population, and removes the apprehension of any rival in the empire of the seas. Were an invasion to be feared, no enemy would be sufficiently powerful to subjugate her territory.

Historical Review.

The secret of the English power first began to be understood by Elizabeth. Called to the throne at a period when the religious reformation which marked an important era, as political reformation characterizes the present, had been obstructed in its progress under the short and bloody reign of Mary, this great princess placed herself at the head of the movement which had drawn all minds within its influence. Unjust and cruel toward Mary Stuart, the political difficulties of her situation can hardly palliate the enormity of her crime, but in other respects we cannot too much admire the grandeur of her conceptions. It was she who laid the foundations of the English power: who first despatched ships to circumnavigate the globe, and who, after sending colonies to both Indies, laid the foundation of that company, which, though useless perhaps at present, has been one of the chief causes of the prosperity of British commerce. Skilful in turning the peculiarities of the English constitution to her advantage, she had the talent to govern despotically without offending the nation, to restore order

Elizabeth.

BOOK CLV.

and economy among the finances, and to give a new impulse to trade and commerce. The accession of James VI, of Scotland, to the English throne, under the name of James I, was attended with the advantage of uniting without violence, two crowns which the common interest should have placed on the same head. His reign was disturbed by plots which ceased only with the Stuarts, but exterior quiet favoured the operations of trade. Charles I, after sundry acts of indecision, weakness, and despotism, died upon a scaffold, before the eyes of a people who had learned, by the tragical end of Lady Jane Grey and Mary Stuart, to witness the fall of a crowned head without shuddering. Under the protectorate of Cromwell, the English navy attained to a degree of power and reputation, which earned a title of glory not to be withheld from this cruel and crafty usurper. Charles II, restored to the throne of his ancestors, confirmed the abolition of the feudal laws, encouraged commerce and agriculture, and founded the Royal Society of London, but his luxuries and pleasures led him into foolish expenses, to meet which he espoused the Infanta of Portugal with the sole desire of enjoying her rich dowry. He sold Dunkirk to France for 25,000 pounds sterling, and compromised the interests of England by joining Louis XIV, in the undertaking to destroy the Dutch power: his despotism and extortions prepared a new revolution, which was accelerated by the pretensions of the Jesuit party, and the distrust of the protestants: victims on both sides fell upon the scaffold, and James II, in the midst of these troubles, forerunners of civil war, succeeded his brother, shocked the prejudices of the nation upon political and religious liberty, and fled from the kingdom at the approach of William of Orange. Enlightened by the experience of the past, the parliament, in decreeing the crown to the son-in-law of James, drew up the celebrated Bill of Rights, which restrained the royal power within its just limits: the two houses retained the management of the public expenses, and the king that of the civil list. In vain Louis XIV, actuated by his attachment to the catholic religion, generosity towards an unfortunate prince, and hatred of William, placed at the command of James his money, soldiers, and ships: the battles of the Boyne and

James I.

Charles I.

Cromwell.

Charles II.

James II.

William III.

Aghrim, in which this prince showed neither the courage nor presence of mind so necessary to a king, took away from him the hope of ever reconquering his throne. Finally, after a reign of thirteen years, in which, for the maintenance of expensive wars with France, he was obliged to resort to loans, William died, leaving the kingdom burthened with a debt of 48 millions of dollars, or ten times the amount of the debt in 1688.

Anne.

Anne, the daughter of James II, in placing Marlborough at the head of the army, saw the national glory revive in the victories of Blenheim and Ramillies, while the battles of Oudenarde and Malplaquet caused that of Almanza to be forgotten. Under her reign, Newfoundland, Hudson's Bay, Minorca, and Gibraltar, were acknowledged to belong to the English. Conformably to the act of succession, the house of Brunswick furnished, in 1714, a new dynasty to Great Britain. George I, and George II, had to struggle against the bold enterprises of Charles Edward, the grandson of James II, till the battle of Culloden, which, in 1746, overthrew the party of the Pretender, and delivered England from civil war, and the fears of a new revolution. Toward the middle of the reign of George I, the private fortunes of many individuals were ruined by the South Sea scheme, as it happened in France at the same time, from the financial system of Law. The reign of George II, longer, and more abounding in important events, witnessed the renewal of that rivalry between Great Britain and France, which had subsequently such important effects upon the political system of Europe. The former consoled herself for the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, and the disasters of the Duke of Cumberland in Flanders, by her successes on the ocean and in India, and by the capture of the island of Goree, and the conquest of Guadaloupe and Canada.

House of Brunswick.

George III.

Under these favourable auspices George III, succeeded to the throne of his grandfather in 1760. Born in England, he possessed a great advantage over his predecessor, and was the idol of the nation. A war which had broken out in 1755, between France and England, was continued for three years longer, and when the former had suffered the loss of her fleets, and the latter so far exhausted her finances as to

BOOK CLV.

be no longer able to raise soldiers without difficulty, the treaty of 1763 followed. Great Britain retained Canada, the island of Cape Breton, Dominica, Grenada, Tobago, St Vincent, and Senegal, but these acquisitions increased her debt tenfold, and the sum now amounted to 134 millions sterling. This was no favourable time for diminishing the taxes, and still less so for increasing them, particularly by imposing burdens upon colonies so important as those of North America, and who required so much forbearance. These colonies had always possessed the right of taxing themselves in their provincial assemblies. The British parliament in 1765, passed an act for collecting stamp-duties in America, but this attempt failing in consequence of the spirited resistance of the Americans, it was renewed in another form by imposing a duty on tea imported from England: the colonies began reprisals by refusing to make use of any British imports, and the Bostonians threw the tea into the sea. The mother country scorned the medium of concession and took up arms. The colonies assembled in a national congress, declared the country an independent, sovereign state, made preparation for war and placed Washington at the head of the army. Victory, long time undecided, at length inclined to the side of the Americans, and in 1778 France made a treaty with the new confederation, and agreed to defend their cause: this was a declaration of war against England: the struggle was obstinate and bloody, and the successes balanced, as shown by the treaty of peace in 1783 by which Great Britain ceded to France Tobago, the banks of the Senegal, and some districts in the neighborhood of Pondicherry, restored her conquests from this power, and her ally, Spain, and abandoned the demolition of Dunkirk. France also gave up her conquests, and the consequence of this treaty was the acknowledgement of the independence of the United States. The events worthy of note in the affairs of England down to the subsequent rupture with France are, abroad, the conquest of half the dominions of Tippoo Saib in India, and at home, the progress of religious toleration, the extension of the privileges of juries in criminal cases to judge not only of the fact, but of the law, and the proposal for the abolition of the slave

American war.

trade, brought forward by the virtuous Wilberforce, adopted by the commons, and rejected by the lords.

Coalitions against France.

But the principles which gave rise to the French revolution were now proclaimed with enthusiasm in the political societies of Great Britain, and the parliament adopted the bill for the exclusion of foreigners, and prohibited the exportation of corn to France. The latter complained of the violation of the commercial treaty of 1787, but Great Britain dismissed the French ambassador and organized against that power in 1793 the first coalition, of which she herself was the soul, and which was composed of nearly the whole of Europe. The victories of the French broke up this alliance, and rendered France more powerful than ever. England stirred up a second coalition in 1799, but was herself forced into a peace, and the treaty of Amiens was signed in 1802. A new coalition arose under her auspices in 1805, and new victories and new aggrandizements on the side of the French at the expense of their neighbors, were the result. In 1807 the fourth English coalition was broken by the treaty of Tilsit. In 1809 a fifth was formed, and ended in the treaty of Vienna by a new acquisition of territory for France. Finally after a perseverance which exhibits in a striking view the power of England, and the immense resources within her reach, the sixth coalition, renewed in 1813, terminated in the fall of the French empire, the restoration of the house of Bourbon, and the treaty of peace concluded at Paris in 1814.

Future prospects of England.

We shall here finish our history of the influence of Great Britain in the politics of Europe: the events which have occurred since 1814 are too well known, and too near our own times to require any notice: all combine to prove that ever since the glorious reign of Elizabeth, the preponderance of England has enjoyed a constant increase. But her power is not guarded against that decay which threatens everything resting on the unstable foundation of human institutions. The voluntary or violent emancipation of her colonies, must one day undermine her strength, and her enormous debt which during thirteen years of peace has diminished only 24 millions sterling, or less than three per

BOOK CLV.

cent, can it result in any thing less than the overthrow of the public credit?

Government.

The British constitution, although appropriate to the character of the people, is not without defects. It is a piece of mosaic work belonging to different epochs: it is the great charter of Henry I,* modified a century later and forced upon the acceptance of king John.† It is the charter confirmed with great alterations by Henry III,‡ and sanctioned by Edward I.§ Its completion is the Declaration of Rights in 1688. It possesses however, the advantage of not impeding the development of any social faculty, of securing every liberty, by the unrestrained exercise of that of the press, and of exalting the character of the subject by placing his life and property under the safeguard of the laws. The king of England joins to the dignity of supreme magistrate, that of head of the church. The former gives him the right of making war and peace, alliances and treaties, raising troops, assembling, proroguing, adjourning, and dissolving parliament, appointing all officers, civil and military, and the chief ecclesiastical dignitaries, and pardoning or commuting the punishment of criminals: the latter gives him power to convoke national and provincial synods, who under his approbation, establish dogmas and discipline. The parliament enjoys a prerogative unknown in France, that of proposing laws, but no law has any validity till approved by the king. On the other hand the will of the sovereign or his ministers, and the annual demand for supplies cannot take the shape of a law till under this form they have been sanctioned by the votes of both houses. The king may increase not only the number of peers, but even that of the commons, by authorising a city to return members to parliament. He arrives at majority at the age of eighteen, and on his accession to the throne must sanction all the laws passed during his minority. Females as well as males possess a hereditary right to the crown. The responsibility of the ministers, not an empty phrase in England, secures the inviolability of the monarch: the ministers are four in number, and independent of one

Parliament.

Ministers.

* In 1100. † In 1215. ‡ In 1265. § In 1272.

another: — the First Lord of the Treasury, or prime minister, who has under his direction the taxes, the custom house, the stamp office and the post office; — the Secretary of State for foreign affairs; — the Home Secretary, who has the direction of colonial affairs excepting those of the East Indies, — and the Secretary at War whose authority extends over the concerns of India. A council is organized to examine whatever relates to Indian affairs, and another superintending the business of commerce and the colonies, is composed of enlightened individuals who combine among themselves the interests of agriculture, industry and commerce, and study unceasingly the wants and tastes of every people for the purpose of making them in some way subservient to British industry. The House of Commons consists of 658 members, of whom 489 represent England, 24 the principality of Wales, 45 Scotland, and 100 Ireland.

House of Commons.

The feudal system is undermined in England as in all countries where knowledge and civilization have created new interests. The right of primogeniture had its uses during the period when the nobility was composed of lords of the territory, with whom hereditary succession was the conservative principle of power, as in the pure monarchies of the present time. But at this day when the division of property is incontestably the surest guarantee for the prosperity of the country, the English custom has become prejudicial. It is not the nobility alone who have followed it; the peasant who owns an acre of ground, studies the exaltation of his eldest son, in imitation of his wealthy lord. The result is, that while two millions of individuals hold the rank of proprietors, thirteen millions of others, shut out from all possession or occupation of the territory, remain with no resources but their own hands, and must struggle for a wretched subsistence, or become the instruments of swelling the frightful mass of pauperism. The repeal of the law of primogeniture would therefore confer a benefit upon England: we have the example of France in proof of this. At present were the British government to use their endeavours to preserve the colonies, to attach them to the mother country, and to offer them a recompense for the prohibition of the infamous slave trade, by granting their

Primogeniture.

BOOK CLV.

territories beyond sea to the unemployed population, and were they to persuade their great proprietors to establish themselves in these countries, would they not reap immense advantages in the diminution of the poor rates? and new openings for the products of their manufactures in transforming their paupers into industrious cultivators, in other words into a productive and consuming class? Furthermore, does not the soil of England offer a sufficiency of uncultivated land to employ a portion of the destitute and inactive population?

Remedy for the Poor Rates.

Advantages enjoyed by England.

It is not difficult then to perceive that this country, inferior to no other in fertility of soil, possessing in minerals an immense source of wealth, employing in her commercial transactions and manufactures a larger capital than any other nation, — this country which, guided by the genius of speculation, presents the spectacle of an enormous productive class whose members are ever disposed to assist each other by a mutual credit — this country which has multiplied in every shape roads and canals, the sources of an unexampled activity, and whose government promotes by its naval power the extension of its commerce, and protects it in every quarter of the globe, — that this country we say, has the means of protracting for an almost indefinite space the period of its downfall, or even of avoiding it forever.

Army.

The English army is formed only by voluntary enlistments; no individual can be forced to take up arms but by an act declaring the country in danger, when a body of militia is draughted by lot. Every year the parliament fixes the number of regular troops; during war they are augmented by levies made in foreign countries. The defence of the colonies is entrusted to mercenaries collected from all nations, but the British regiments for home duty can be composed only of national troops. Mounted volunteers form a corps by the name of *Yeomanry Cavalry*, whose service may be compared to that of the French gendarmerie. We may remark that military offices like civil employments, are, in a manner, the property of those individuals to whom they are confided; thus a colonel or a captain, by observing certain formalities, may sell for money, his regiment or company. In the navy, promotions

are made according to seniority. Seamen are enlisted for the navy like soldiers for the land service. But in war the government is often driven to the despotic and odious measure of impressment.

Character of the inhabitants of the British Isles.

The shades which mark the character of the three principal nations of the British Isles, are more strongly contrasted than those which distinguish the inhabitants of the different provinces of France or the other European countries. We have shown by a few historical details that the long separation in which these nations have existed, has opposed an obstacle even greater than that occasioned by the difference of religion, to a perfect amalgamation. The English in general lead a life of great uniformity. An air of reserve and stiffness, and a formal etiquette reign in the saloons of fashionable life and even among members of the most intimate associations. The Englishman receives a stranger with politeness, but never with cordiality. An unreserved egotist, his civilities rather seek for a decent method of getting rid of his guest, than for the means of detaining him by any engaging solicitation. The custom in England of meeting together in clubs has, perhaps, contributed much to create that blunt and serious character which distinguishes the men, while the females, living secluded from the other sex, maintain an air of reserve which among the French would pass for a deficiency of good breeding. In England all classes strive to possess the conveniences and luxuries of life. The interior of the peasant's dwelling has not the least resemblance to that of a French country house. The English rustic provides himself with neat and commodious furniture, and clothing equal to that of the city resident. Thus at great popular meetings, or public solemnities, there are no means of distinguishing the villager from the citizen, the cultivator from the manufacturer, or the servant from his master. It has been remarked, that England is the country where a man has the least scruple in asking for or receiving money, and that, elsewhere, poverty is a misfortune but in England a crime. England is in fact the land in which a man is the most highly valued for his exterior. Merit cannot succeed here without the accompaniment of fortune.

English.

BOOK CLV.

Scotch.

Irish.

The Scotchman is hospitable, religious, proud, enterprising, brave, and strongly wedded to his principles. There is a frivolity in his character, and he is easily excited, but his great obsequiousness often causes a doubt of his sincerity. The Irishman is intelligent, inconstant in his attachments, and ever in extremes both of friendship and enmity, but his manners are lively, brilliant and agreeable. An English writer has characterized the three nations in the following terms. The Englishman is guided by habit: the Scotchman by reflection and impulse: the Irishman by impulse alone. The first is persevering, but slow: the second is more frivolous, but has more steadiness of mind: the last is variable as the breeze, and has nothing solid, he is a mere bag of wind. The Englishman in prosperity is haughty: the Scotchman meddlesome: the Irishman always vain. From the same authority we may learn the difference which exists in the legislation of the three kingdoms. In Scotland a man is banished for a great crime; in England for a small one, and in Ireland for the slightest offence. But among the exiles of New South Wales, the Irishman would become an excellent citizen, the Englishman a tolerable one, while the Scotchman would remain incorrigible.

[By the American Editor.]

While these sheets are in preparation, the tidings reach us of events in England so interesting in their character, and opening such additional views of the future fortunes of the British Empire, that it would be unpardonable in us not to detain the reader at this last stage of our progress by dwelling a few moments upon them. The fate of this great monarchy, whether for good or for evil, is a subject of absorbing interest to all parts of the civilized world, and the influence of the political changes which we are assured, can no longer be avoided in England, must be felt wherever her physical or moral power prevails. That country endured the shock of the European revolution without any manifest injury to her social institutions, and while almost every other nation of Europe was subjected to political changes, the

effects of which are still in powerful operation, England survived, and saw none of her ancient institutions unsettled. Her good fortune and immense resources carried her through the tremendous struggle with so proud a triumph, that common observers were far from seeing in her splendid military and naval achievements, the secret and sure causes of her subsequent decline. The shrewdest did but observe some lowering clouds of uncertainty which hung over a prospect so fair and flattering, but recent events have developed a new symptom in the operation of the political system, which seems to point clearly to a consummation of the most momentous character. England, in short, if we believe the united declarations of Whig and Tory, of Lord and Commoner, of those who desire and those who deprecate the coming event; England is about to undergo a revolution, partial, it may be, and bloodless, but a revolution from which she cannot retrograde, and assuredly will not pass through without experiencing great and permanent changes.

The constitution of England was the growth of successive ages, and altered from time to time as the progress of general knowledge or the immediate exigences of the day called for new developments. Containing thus within itself the seed and element of change, it may be regarded as exhibiting at any given period, and with more or less fidelity in the likeness, a copy of the political improvements of the time. By accommodating itself in this manner to the march of events in its practical operation, while its outward and visible forms remained untouched, the admirers of the British constitution have been led to ascribe its permanent endurance and successful operation to the mere tangible shape and letter of the system, rather than to its gradual mutation of spirit and temper, and have mistaken the mechanical for the moral part of the machine. Hence the preservation of the ancient forms of the constitution has been an object of prime solicitude with the British statesmen, impressed with the belief that an adherence to these forms would alone secure the stability of the government. But the popular spirit, which since the accession of the Stuarts had been gradually gaining ground in England, has at length attained to a mighty power and intensity, and is at this

moment essaying to burst in pieces the iron frame work of feudality which has so long embarrassed its struggles. In other words the current of public opinion, either openly proclaimed or secretly cherished, sets so strongly toward a more liberal government than anything which the actual system is likely to afford them, that we are warranted in believing the present constitution of England cannot last. A thorough reform is called for, which will not spare the prescriptions of time or the claims of hereditary succession.

We have said that this constitution has changed with the social improvements of the people: this is only true with regard to its general career: the progress of liberal opinions has languished or been checked from time to time, and the monarchical spirit against which it has been striving, has occasionally thrown the current backward; but all resistance has in the end yielded to its power. The republican spirit sympathised with us in our struggle for independence, and although repressed for a time by the strong arm of government, it finally drove Lord North from the cabinet, and left the king without power to carry on the war. It is not saying too much to assert that the treaty of independence was owing as much to the progress of liberal ideas in England as to the victories of Saratoga and Yorktown. The French revolution further assisted the growth of republican doctrines, although its bloody catastrophe and the vigorous measures of Mr Pitt prevented their leading to any practical results. The wars, moreover, of this eventful period, by withdrawing the minds of the people from the domestic concerns of government, and exciting anew their ancient national prejudices against a foreign enemy, had a sensible effect in saving for the time the aristocratical abuses in the government from the assaults of the political reformers. The British oligarchy, who were squandering the millions of their national treasure in a crusade for the defence of the principle of legitimate monarchy, were little aware that the loads they were adding to the enormous national debt of England would prove millstones for their own necks. That this will be the result there can be little doubt; the distresses of the people have now become intolerable, and the belief is unchangeably fixed that these dis-

tresses are the result of imperfections in the government: upon this belief the people are now acting and will continue to act till the oligarchy is overthrown.

The commencement of the present excitement in favour of parliamentary reform may be dated at the period of the late Parisian revolution. For a great number of years it had been thought by many of the more liberal among the British statesmen, a flagrant abuse of the representative principle, that the populous and wealthy cities of modern origin should be denied the right of representation, while the decayed boroughs, though with hardly an inhabitant, continued to send their full number to the house of commons; and that three fourths of that body, which claimed to be a representation of the people, should hold their offices through the influence of the government and a few wealthy individuals. A conviction of the absurdity of such a system gradually gained ground, and attempts to introduce reform were essayed from time to time, but with little prospect of success, till the events of the three days at Paris struck a sudden panic into the aristocratical party, to whom the spectacle of such a triumph of the popular spirit was an omen of the result of the struggle at home, not to be disregarded. Those who had been constant and inflexible in their opposition to the demands of the reformers, began to tremble lest the object might be ravished from them by force were it any longer withheld; while the popular party, cheered on by the example before them, pressed forward to their aim with new hope and resolution. A reform in parliament was loudly called for in all parts of the country. The voice of the people was decidedly for it, and the demand was made with a firmness and significance of tone not to be slighted. If we consider the motives which led each individual to espouse the new doctrines, we shall not be surprised at the result when we find a vast majority of the nation enlisted on their side. The whig embraced reform from principle and internal conviction both of its justness and necessity. The tory in the dread of a revolution saw in reform the means of averting a worse evil, and would throw it as a sop to the Cerberus of radicalism. The noble trembled for his order, and the rich proprietor for his possessions; while the three hundred thousand

annuitants of the exchequer, partaking in the general alarm, could not be ignorant that the slightest shock to public credit would accomplish their ruin. On the meeting of parliament in the latter part of 1830, it was soon perceived that the whig party had a majority. The Duke of Wellington was forced to quit office, and a whig ministry came into the cabinet, it being more than twenty years since that party had directed the councils of the nation. This may be said to constitute a new era in the political history of the country. The new ministry came into office pledged to parliamentary reform, and nothing less could be looked for at their hands than a systematic removal of all notorious abuses in the government, and such an essential modification of its features as should adapt it to the immediate wants and improved intelligence of the times. The Wellington ministry, although professing to act upon pure tory principles, had made an important concession in this quarter by allowing the claims of the catholics; but this was done avowedly with the dread of rebellion before their eyes, and in the utter incapacity of carrying on the government without some such concession to the popular demands. The new ministry, however, are bound to the popular cause not more by a wish to quiet the prevailing discontents, than by their own avowed principles. No half measures or temporary shifts would have satisfied the nation after the promise which their pledges and known character had held out. In this state of things the ministers brought forward their celebrated Reform Bill, which is now under discussion in parliament, and is agitating the nation with more intense and absorbing interest than any subject of debate which has come before them in modern times. By this bill it is proposed to disfranchise 60 of the decayed boroughs, and to transfer their privileges to the great cities and other parts hitherto without representatives, or unequally represented.* With what hopes the prospect of this change inspires one class, and

* In addition to this change, it is proposed to deprive of one member each, 47 additional boroughs, whose population falls short of 4000: to reduce the representation of two others from 4 to 2 members; and in the remaining boroughs, to withdraw the privilege of returning the members from the corporations, and vest it in the householders.

with what fears it appals another, we may judge by the language they hold.

The friends of reform maintain that it will be the salvation of the country; that the borough system which the reform cuts up by the roots, is a distorted and diseased member of the political system, infecting the sound body of the constitution, and embarrassing its free operation, but the removal of which would immediately restore health and orderly movement to its whole frame. That this measure holds in its right hand a gift to heal every discontent and restore universal quiet. That if the measure is accepted, the whole resources of the people will for the first time, without let or hindrance, be brought into active exertion. That peace at home and prosperity abroad will bless the land with their sure effects; and the times of discord and mutual distrust which have preceded the happy change, will only be remembered to make the enjoyment of the present more grateful, and the determination to remain contented and united more firm.

On the other hand the opponents of the measure assert that it strikes at the very roots of the government, and will infallibly lead to its overthrow. That it is in fact a revolution, being the first step in a series of measures which must follow each other in a natural and unavoidable sequence till the consummation is reached in a complete prostration of all that is powerful and wealthy in the land, more than realizing the aims of the wildest leveller of the day. That a concession to the popular clamour would be regarded as a proof of weakness in the government, and so far from appeasing it would only encourage its insolence. That this or any other moderate scheme of reform could not procure for the country one brief interval of repose, or be permitted to work on unassailed by any disturbing force till it reached its natural and fatal crisis. That Reform, anything like what is now talked of as reform, once commenced can never stand still. That the boldest advocates of the measure make no scruple of declaring that not a foot of ground can be conceded to them on which they will not be able to plant a lever for displacing their enemies from another. That when the present reform is granted it will no

longer rest with the government to check the fury of popular encroachment. That only a step or two beyond the present reform would lead to the climax of universal suffrage, and annual parliaments; a climax which would place the immense wealth of Great Britain in all its vast and complicated relations, within the hands of that physical power whose influence is now so much dreaded. That such a legislature would strip the peerage of its hereditary honours and privileges, and finish by overturning the throne. That the course now proposed by the ministry leads infallibly to this result, and that the first step in this course will be irretrievable.

Such are the views entertained of the impending crisis by those who direct the two great organs of public opinion in political matters. The heat with which the controversy is urged assures us that the disputants deem no ordinary interest at stake. The fate of the Reform Bill is dubious, and it would be idle to speculate upon its effects with any confidence, supposing it to pass. That it must lead to momentous consequences we have no shadow of doubt, and we have little faith in its efficacy for healing discontents, while the effects of the Catholic emancipation are before our eyes. On the other hand events of no small moment must attend its rejection, an occurrence which would break up the existing cabinet. Of what materials a ministry could be composed that might be able to carry on the government in such a juncture, is beyond our sagacity to divine. England is on the eve of a great catastrophe.

Boston, October, 1831.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

ENGLAND.

Containing the Counties, with their Population: the Chief Towns, with their Population: number of Parishes, and Members sent to Parliament.

SURFACE OF ENGLAND 6,500 SQUARE LEAGUES.

Counties and Chief Towns.	Population in 1821. Of the County.	Population in 1821. Of the Chief Towns.	No. of Parishes.	No. of members of Parliament.
Bedfordshire	83,716		123	4
Bedford		5,466		
Berkshire	131,977		151	9
Reading		9,026		
Buckinghamshire	134,068		202	14
Buckingham		3,465		
Cambridgeshire	121,909		167	6
Cambridge		14,141		
Cheshire	270,098		90	4
Chester		19,949		
Cornwall	257,447		203	44
Launceston		2,183		
Cumberland	156,124		104	6
Carlisle		15,476		
Derbyshire	213,333		139	4
Derby		17,423		
Devonshire	439,040		465	26
Exeter		23,479		
Dorsetshire	144,499		271	20
Dorchester		2,743		
Durham	207,673		75	4
Durham		9,822		
Essex	289,424		406	8
Chelmsford		4,994		
Gloucestershire	335,843		339	8
Gloucester		9,744		
Herefordshire	103,231		219	8
Hereford		9,990		
Hertfordshire	129,714		132	6
Hertford		4,265		
Huntingdonshire	48,771		103	4
Huntingdon		2,806		

BOOK CLV.

Counties and Chief Towns.	Population in 1821. Of the County.	Population in 1821. Of the Chief Towns.	No. of Parishes.	No. of Members of Parliament.
Kent	426,016		411	18
Canterbury		12,745		
Lancashire	1,052,859		70	14
Lancaster		10,144		
Leicestershire	174,571		216	4
Leicester		30,125		
Lincolnshire	283,058		629	12
Lincoln		10,367		
Middlesex	1,243,883		197	8
London		1,225,694		
Monmouthshire	71,835		125	3
Monmouth		4,164		
Norfolk	344,368		731	12
Norwich		50,288		
Northamptonshire	163,483		306	9
Northampton		10,793		
Northumberland	198,965		88	8
Newcastle		35,181		
Nottinghamshire	186,874		212	8
Nottingham		40,415		
Oxfordshire	134,327		217	9
Oxford		16,364		
Rutlandshire	18,487		52	2
Oakham		796		
Salop	206,266		216	12
Shrewsbury		19,602		
Somersetshire	355,314		475	18
Bath		36,812		
Southamptonshire	282,203		298	26
Winchester		7,739		
Staffordshire	348,824		145	10
Stafford		5,736		
Suffolk	270,542		510	16
Ipswich		17,186		
Surrey	398,658		142	14
Guilford		3,161		
Sussex	232,927		310	28
Chichester		7,362		
Warwickshire	274,392		205	6
Warwick		8,235		
Westmoreland	51,359		32	4
Kendal		8,984		
Wiltshire	222,157		300	34
Salisbury		8,763		
Worcestershire	184,424		171	9
Worcester		17,023		
Yorkshire East Riding	190,709		237	10
Yorkshire North Riding	183,694		183	10
Yorkshire West Riding	800,848		193	10
York		20,787		
Total	11,350,900		9,860	489

PRINCIPALITY OF WALES.

SQUARE LEAGUES 1,050.

Counties and Chief Towns.	Population in 1821. Of the County.	Population in 1821. Of the Chief Towns.	No. of Parishes.	No. of Members of Parliament.
Anglesea	45,063		67	2
Beaumaris		2,205		
Brecon	43,613		66	2
Brecknock		4,193		
Cardiganshire	57,311		65	2
Cardigan		2,397		
Caermarthenshire	90,239		77	2
Caermarthen		8,906		
Caernarvonshire	57,958		69	2
Caernarvon		5,788		
Denbighshire	76,000		59	2
Denbigh		3,195		
Flintshire	53,784		27	2
Flint		1,612		
Glamorganshire	101,737		125	2
Cardiff		3,521		
Merionethshire	33,900		45	1
Dolgelly		2,093		
Montgomeryshire	59,000		92	2
Montgomery		1,062		
Pembrokeshire	75,309		141	3
Pembroke		4,925		
Radnorshire	23,573		52	2
Presteigne		1,941		
Total	717,998		885	24

SCOTLAND.

SQUARE LEAGUES 3,830.

Aberdeen	155,045		82	1
Aberdeen		33,639		
Argyle	96,165		50	1
Inverary		1,137		
Ayr	127,299		46	2
Ayr		7,465		
Banff	43,561		23	2
Banff		3,825		
Berwick	33,385		38	1
Dunse		3,773		
Bute	13,797		5	1
Rothsay		5,709		
Caithness	30,238		10	1
Wick		1,000		

BOOK CLV.

Counties and Chief Towns.	Population in 1821. Of the County.	Population in 1821. Of the Chief Towns.	No. of Parishes.	No. of Members of Parliament.
Clackmannan	13,263		5	1
Clackmannan		3,605		
Dumbarton	27,217		12	1
Dumbarton		3,481		
Dumfries	70,878		43	4
Dumfries		11,052		
Edinburgh	191,514		41	
Edinburgh		138,235		
Elgin	31,162		20	1
Elgin		5,308		
Fife	114,552		61	1
St Andrews		4,899		
Forfar or *Angus*	113,430		54	1
Forfar		5,197		
Haddington	35,127		24	
Haddington		5,255		
Inverness	90,157		30	1
Inverness		12,264		
Kincardine	29,118		19	
Bervie or Inverberoie		1,092		
Kinross	7,762		4	
Kinross		5,253		
Kirkcudbright	38,903		28	1
Kirkcudbright		1,841		
Lanark	244,387		50	1
Lanark		7,085		
Linlithgow	22,685		13	
Linlithgow		2,600		
Nairn	9,006		4	1
Nairn		2,000		
Orkney and *Shetland*	53,124		33	1
Kirkwall		2,212		
Peebles	10,046		16	
Peebles		2,205		
Perth	139,050		81	
Perth		19,068		
Renfrew	112,175		17	
Renfrew		2,646		
Ross	64,513		30	1
Tain		2,861		
Cromarty	4,315		3	1
Cromarty		2,413		
Roxburgh	40,893		32	1
Jedburgh		5,251		
Selkirk	6,637		5	1
Selkirk		1,500		
Stirling	65,331		24	1
Stirling		7,314		
Sutherland	23,840		13	1
Dornoch		3,100		
Wigton	33,240		17	
Stornway		4,119		
	2,091,815		984	45

IRELAND.

SQUARE LEAGUES 3,548.

PROVINCE OF ULSTER.

Counties and Chief Towns.	Population in 1821. Of the County.	Population in 1821. Of the Chief Towns.	No. of Parishes.	No. of Members of Parliament.
Antrim	261,400		56	5
Antrim		2,200		
Armagh	197,500		10	2
Armagh		8,000		
Cavan	194,830		30	2
Cavan				
Kilmore		3,000		
Donegal	249,833		42	2
Donegal		4,000		
Raphoe				
Down	329,848		72	4
Downpatrick		5,000		
Dromore				
Fermanagh	131,300		19	3
Inniskillin		3,500		
Londonderry	194,200		31	4
Londonderry		20,000		
Monaghan	178,500		21	2
Monaghan		3,000		
Tyrone	260,800		35	3
Dungannon		4,000		
Clogher				
Total	1,998,261		316	29

PROVINCE OF CONNAUGHT.

Galway	314,700		116	2
Galway		27,827		
Clonfert				
Tuam				
Leitrim	117,976		21	2
Carrock upon Shannon		2,000		
Mayo	305,538		68	2
Castlebar		5,000		
Killala				
Roscommon	228,777		50	2
Roscommon		2,000		
Elphin				
Sligo	138,879		39	3
Sligo		10,000		
	1,105,870		294	13

BOOK CLV.

PROVINCE OF LEINSTER.

Counties and Chief Towns.	Population in 1821. Of the County.	Population in 1821. Of the Chief Towns.	No. of Parishes.	No. of Members of Parliament.
Carlow	81,287		50	2
Carlow		7,000		
Leighlin				
Dublin	346,550		107	5
Dublin		200,000		
Kildare	101,715		100	2
Kildare		3,000		
Kilkenny	180,097		127	3
Kilkenny		23,000		
King's County	132,319		52	2
Birr or Parson's Town		5,500		
Longford	107,702		24	2
Longford		3,000		
Louth	101,070		61	4
Drogheda		18,118		
Meath	174,716		147	2
Trim		2,000		
Meath				
Queen's County	129,391		50	3
Marlborough		2,000		
Assory				
Westmeath	128,042		62	3
Mullinghan		2,000		
Wexford	169,305		109	4
Wexford		9,000		
Ferns				
Wicklow	115,165		58	2
Wicklow		2,000		
Total	1,767,359		947	37

PROVINCE OF MUNSTER.

Clare	209,595		79	3
Clare		1,000		
Killaloe				
Cork	802,000		232	2
Cork		100,535		
Cloyne				
Kerry	205,037		84	4
Tralee		3,000		
Limerick	224,286		125	2
Limerick		66,042		
Tipperary	353,402		147	4
Clonmel		8,000		
Cashel				
Waterford	135,990		34	4
Waterford		26,787		
Total	1,930,310		700	21

RECAPITULATION.

	Population.	Parishes.	Members of Parliament.
Munster	1,930,310	700	21
Ulster	1,998,261	316	29
Connaught	1,105,870	294	13
Leinster	1,767,359	947	37
Total of Ireland	6,801,800	2,257	100
England proper	11,350,900	9,860	489
Wales	717,998	885	24
Scotland	2,091,815	948	45
Grand total of the British Islands	20,963,513	13,950	658

TABLE

OF THE POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1821.

Showing the Number of Persons employed in Agriculture, Commerce and Manufactures.

	Persons employed in agriculture.	Persons employed in commerce and manufactures.	Persons employed in other ways and without occupations.	Children under 10 years.	Total of Population.	Total of the Kingdoms.
GREAT BRITAIN.						
England, Man, and the Anglo-Norman Isles.	2,851,600	4,078,800	1,673,200	2,747,300	11,350,900	12,068,300
Principality of Wales.	264,800	148,700	108,600	195,300	717,400	
Scotland.	459,300	668,100	446,200	518,400	2,092,000	2,092,000
IRELAND.						
Province of Ulster.	328,800	584,100	617,200	468,400	1,998,500	6,801,800
Leinster.	252,600	215,800	796,600	492,500	1,757,500	
Munster.	320,000	145,900	895,700	574,000	1,935,600	
Connaught.	236,600	224,200	313,100	336,300	1,110,200	
Total.	4,713,700	6,065,600	4,850,600	5,332,200	20,962,100	

Table of the Imports and Exports of the British Islands for the years ending the 5th January 1827, *and* 1828 *drawn principally from the Tables published by M. Cæsar Moreau, French Consul at London.*

Year.		Imports. Pounds sterling.	Exports. Pounds sterling.
1827	Gold in ingots or coin	5,800,000	
	Silver do	2,400,000	
1827	Wool	478,419	
28	do	883,785	
1827	Wool spun and woven		5,041,568
28			5,979,701
29			5,277,861
1827	Silk, raw and in thread	1,272,490	
28		2,080,058	
1827	Silk, manufactured		106,648
28			173,334
1827	Cotton, raw	5,726,997	
28		8,963,688	
1827	Cotton cloths		24,445,742
28			29,203,138
1827	do yarn and thread		3,748,526
28			3,979,759
1827	Flax	1,346,802	
28		1,786,304	
1827	Linen cloth		2,056,553
28			2,808,081
1827	Linen thread	142,555	
28		181,548	
1827	Foreign cloths	88,783	
28		67,695	
1827	India stuffs	725,321	
28		449,306	
1827	Flaxseed and other seed	229,160	
28		259,668	
1827	Coarse sugar	5,602,844	
28		5,328,114	
1827	Refined sugar		917,130
28			1,117,329
1827	Coffee	2,569,245	
28		2,945,028	
1827	Tea	2,984,040	
28		3,974,623	
1827	Corn and flour	2,117,390	19,326
28		1,994,214	27,577
1827	Wood of all kinds	1,070,287	
28		994,675	
1827	Indigo	1,084,749	
28		801,393	
1827	Wine of all countries	786,440	
28		867,545	

BOOK CLV.

Year.		Imports. Pounds sterling.	Exports. Pounds sterling.
1827	Rum	416,447	
28		497,207	
1827	Hides and leather	558,507	
28		423,789	
1827	Furs and peltry	242,709	
28		314,093	
1827	Brandies	199,534	
28		236,788	
1827	Butter and cheese	532,303	55,091
28		564,304	53,830
1827	Wrought iron and steel	126,620	1,329,559
28		180,439	1,581,413
1827	Ironmongery and cutlery		563,147
28			713,523
1827	Wrought brass and copper		524,626
28			776,895
1827	Tin, unwrought		159,691
28			180,768
1827	do wrought		241,017
28			299,799
1827	Jewelry and goldsmith's work		163,163
28			168,003
1827	Hats, all kinds		167,778
28			159,485
1827	Coal		298,069
28			314,200
1827	Whale oil	410,260	9,111
28		497,323	
1827	Madder	330,391	
28		451,086	
1827	Spices and musk	444,406	
28		541,337	
1827	Salt		202,343
28			245,918
1827	Fish, all kinds		178,612
28			187,252
1827	Paper		182,240
28			193,246
1827	Glass		111,408
28			146,109

Table of the British possessions in the five parts of the world in 1821.

		Population.
EUROPE	Kingdom of Hanover	1,434,000
	Gibraltar	15,000
	Heligoland	4,000
	Malta. Gozzo and Comino	95,000
	Ionian Islands	227,000
ASIA	Hindostan	83,000,000
	Hindoo Tributaries and Allies	40,000,000
	Ceylon	1,200,000

		Population.
AFRICA	Sierra Leone and dependencies	13,000
	Settlements on the Gold Coast	10,000
	Cape of Good Hope	120,000
	Isle of France	90,000
	Seychelles	7,000
	St Helena	4,000
	Ascension (station)	
AMERICA	New Britain	675,000
	Bermudas	4,000
	Lucayos	15,000
	Jamaica	390,000
	Virgin Gorda, Tortola, &c	18,000
	Anguilla	1,000
	St Christopher's	32,000
	Nevis	16,000
	Montserrat	11,000
	Barbuda	2,000
	Antigua	41,000
	Dominica	27,000
	St Lucia	25,000
	Barbadoes	116,000
	St Vincent	27,000
	Grenada	35,000
	Tobago	18,000
	Trinidad	33,000
	Bay of Honduras	4,000
	Guyana	110,000
	Hopparo	400
OCEANICA	New South Wales	21,000
	Van Diemen's Land	4,000
	Total of the British possessions	127,864,400
	Population of the British Islands	20,962,513
	Grand Total of the British Empire	148,826,913

British Military and Naval Force in 1827.

Ships of 98 to 120 guns	50 to 84 guns	42 to 48 guns	24 to 38 guns	16 to 22 guns	Sloops	Cutters	Bomb	Yachts	Total
28	137	117	42	85	67	110	12	13	606

Sailors	34,000
Land Army	68,000
Total	102,000

Number of condemnations for Crimes committed in the Kingdom of England.

Nature of the Crimes.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.
Unnatural and indecent offences	23	15	46	37	24	35	79
Rape and attempt at rape	44	38	58	57	52	48	87
Bigamy	14	18	23	19	22	25	35
Theft with housebreaking	283	294	322	261	302	276	309
Stealing horses and cattle	133	143	111	158	123	189	141
Robbery accompanied with murder	1	1			2		
Theft by entering houses in the day time	158	167	102	124	128	112	125
Stealing, simply	6,499	6,152	5,946	5,977	6,914	7,293	8,081
Picking pockets	454	337	343	329	446	532	658
Stealing in houses, shops, &c	204	140	135	146	190	186	223
Stealing valuable letters					1	2	
Street and highway robbery	133	160	141	113	124	93	144
Sheep stealing, forcible	143	90	66	79	105	104	127
Receiving and transporting stolen goods	121	157	125	121	187	135	168
Violation of children	3	3	3	1		3	1
Swindling	163	211	182	147	142	176	157
Theft in domestic service	43	42	58	64	71	70	91
Coining	169	206	183	175	206	176	210
Counterfeiting Bank notes	272	180	1				4
Counterfeiting other things	101	70	35	29	22	18	23
Destroying machines		1				3	
Offences against game laws	131	149	97	153	140	109	128
Sending threatening letters	2	1	1		2		2
Unpremeditated homicide	36	49	49	53	50	62	62
Murder	14	23	24	12	17	12	13
Poisoning to rob	8	12	33	14	21	17	14
Infanticide	7	2	9	9	6	7	7
Blasphemy	1						
Sacrilege	9	5	8	4	4	1	4
Piracy						2	
High treason	33	1					
Slave trade. Armed smuggling. Rescuing criminals. Destroying plantations and other capital crimes	108	113	99	118	121	271	196
Total condemned	9,300	8,788	8,209	8,204	9,425	9,964	11,095
Others not caught	1,881	1,826	1,684	1,579	1,662	1,685	1,786
Acquitted	2,511	2,501	2,348	2,480	2,611	2,788	3,266
Total indicted	13,710	13,115	12,241	12,263	13,698	14,437	16,147
Of which men	11,595	11,173	10,369	10,342	11,475	11,889	13,461
Of which women	2,115	1,942	1,872	1,921	2,223	2,548	2,686

Punishments.		1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.
Transportation	for life	221	155	132	116	117	126	133
	10 to 14 years	342	273	84	78	107	129	185
	4 to 7 do	1,655	1,675	1,316	1,327	1,492	1,419	1,945
Imprisonment	3 to 5 years	15	11	13	11	11	7	11
	1 to 2 do	355	286	376	324	339	365	297
	6 mo. to 1 year	1,153	1,117	1,129	1,074	1,218	1,193	1,201
	6 mo. and under	4,089	3,872	3,899	4,040	4,861	5,408	5,813
Whipped and fined		252	265	244	266	214	281	310
Capitally convicted		1,236	1,134	1,016	968	1,066	1,036	1,200
Total as above		9,318	8,788	8,209	8,204	9,425	9,964	11,095
Capital convictions as above		1,236	1,134	1,016	968	1,066	1,036	1,200
Of these hanged		107	114	97	54	49	50	57
Total of capital punishments commuted		1,129	1,020	919	914	1,017	986	1,143

Revenues and Expenditures of Great Britain during the years ending January 5th, 1828 *and* 1829.

	Revenue. 1828. Pounds sterling.	1829. Pounds sterling.	Diminution. Pounds sterling.	Increase. Pounds sterling.
Customs	16,391,838	16,125,118	266,720	
Excise	16,969,564	18,700,373		1,730,809
Stamps	6,375,140	6,666,363		291,223
Post Office	1,385,000	1,400,000		15,000
Taxes	4,768,273	4,849,302		81,029
Other sources	754,860	564,169	190,694	
Total	46,644,675	48,305,322	457,414	2,118,061
				457,414
Increase of 1829 over the preceding year				1,660,647

Expenditures — average years.

	Pounds sterling.
Exchequer annuities	46,000
South Sea Company	369,000
Bank, upon its capital	536,000
Dividends	12,886,000
National debt	2,424,000
Military pensions	5,600,000
Civil List	850,000
Pensions	375,000
Other charges	900,000
Total of expenditures foreseen	23,966,000
Contingent expenses	11,000,000
Total approximation	34,966,000
Excess of receipts over expenditures	11,000,000
	45,966,000

BOOK CLV.

Recapitulation of Receipts and Expenditures on an average of the last 4 years.

	Pounds sterling.
Receipts	47,072,588
Expenditures	34,966,000
Excess	12,106,588
National Debt	1,280,000,000

Superficial Extent of the British Dominions.

	According to the Almanack of Gotha.	According to M. Balbi.
In Europe	124,970 square miles	121,200 square miles
Asia	1,130,242	1,132,650
Africa	128,137	121,000
America	2,704,140	2,573,000
Australasia	101,610	1,994,000
Total	4,189,099	5,941,850

The difference between these two statements is chiefly occasioned by this circumstance; the first estimate includes those parts only of New Holland where British settlements have been established, while the latter takes in the whole of that immense island.

Members of the House of Peers.

Princes of the blood royal	5
Dukes	19
Marquesses	18
Earls	105
Viscounts	22
Barons	160
Peers of Scotland, elected for each parliament	16
Peers of Ireland, elected for life	28
Archbishops and Bishops	26
Irish representative Bishops	4
Total members	403

House of Commons.

Forty counties in England send	80 knights
Twenty-seven cities	50 citizens
One hundred and sixty-seven boroughs, 2 each	334 burgesses
Five boroughs one each	5 do
Two universities, 2 each	4 do
Five Cinque Ports and their 3 branches, 2 each	16 barons
Twelve counties in Wales	12 knights
Twelve boroughs in Wales	12 burgesses
Shires of Scotland	30 knights
Boroughs of Scotland	15 burgesses
Counties of Ireland	64 knights
Boroughs of Ireland	36 burgesses
Total	658 members

Sums annually raised by the British government for the war against the French from 1793 *to* 1815.

	Pounds sterling.
1793	4,000,000
1794	10,000,000
1795	18,000,000
1796	26,000,000
1797	35,000,000
1798	29,000,000
1799	36,000,000
1800	36,000,000
1801	45,000,000
1802	44,000,000
1803	29,000,000
1804	40,000,000
1805	52,000,000
1806	50,000,000
1807	56,000,000
1808	57,000,000
1809	61,000,000
1810	62,000,000
1811	66,000,000
1812	80,000,000
1813	98,000,000
1814	89,000,000
1815	86,000,000

Colquhoun, in his work on the wealth of the British empire, estimated the amount of new property created annually within the United Kingdom and all its dependencies, or in other words, its annual income, as follows, in 1812.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Agriculture,		*L.* 216,817,624
Mines and Minerals,		9,000,000
Manufactures,		114,230,000
Inland trade,		31,500,000
Foreign commerce and shipping,		46,373,748
Coasting trade,		2,000,000
Fisheries, exclusive of Newfoundland,		2,100,000
Banks, chartered and private,		3,500,000
Foreign income,		5,000,000
Dependencies in Europe,		1,818,000
		432,339,372
British possessions in North America,	13,215,474	
British West India Colonies,	28,712,466	
		41,927,940
British settlements in Africa,		800,300
British Colonies and Dependencies in Asia,	6,194,230	
East India Company's Possessions,	211,966,494	
		218,160,724
		L. 693,228,336

BOOK CLV.

Amount of Property in the British Empire according to the same author.

Europe.	Great Britain and Ireland,	*L.* 2,736,640,000
	Dependencies,	22,161,330
America.	British possessions in North America,	46,575,360
	British West India colonies,	100,014,864
	Conquered West India colonies,	75,220,000
Africa.	British settlements,	550,500
	Conquered settlements,	4,220,100
Asia.	British colonies and dependencies,	11,280,000
	Conquered do	27,441,090
	East India Company's possessions,	1,072,427,751
Total amount of property in the British Empire,		*L.* 4,096,530,895

Comparison of certain objects of Consumption in Great Britain and France.

	In Great Britain.	In France.	For each million Of English.	Of French.
	kilogrammes.	kilogrammes.	kilogrammes.	kilogrammes.
Sugar, in 1824,	202,000,000	58,000,000	10,000,000	1,920,000
Tea, average,	9,740,000	88,000	512,000	2,900
Coffee,	3,600,000	9,000,000	182,000	300,000
Tobacco,	7,600,000	3,200,000	380,000	123,000
	litres.	litres.	litres.	litres.
Wine,	38,190,000	31,800,000,000	1,410,000	104,000,000
Spirits, 1826, For. 17,980,000 Dom. 109,230,000	127,210,000	26,200,000	6,400,000	860,000
Beer,	1,910,000,000	704,000,000	95,000,000	23,470,000

GENERAL INDEX.

*** The Roman numbers indicate the volume: the Arabic numbers the page: t signifies *town*, cit *city*, pr *province*, dep *department*, king *kingdom*, str *strait*, st *state*, m *mountain*, i *island*, c *cape*, r *river*, b *bay*, pl *plain*, l *lake*, des *desert*, ft *fort*, cas *castle*, pt *port*.

Aa r vi 517
Aar r vi 43
Aalborg t viii 591
Aarhus t viii 591
Abakansk pt ii 439
Abbeville t viii 470
Abensberg t vii 389
Aberbrothock t viii 764
Aberdeen t viii 764
Abo t vi 490
Abomey t iv 336
Abookir t iv 67
Abyssinia iv 123
Acadia v 136
Acapulco t v 340
Acheen t iii 432
Acheen pr iii 433
Achenrein t vii 517
Achtyrka t vi 575
Acla l ii 129
Acouti t ii 59
Acre t ii 138
Adam's Peak m iii 219
Adana t ii 80
Adda r vii 588
Adel pr iv 409
Adele i iii 564
Aden t ii 217
Adige vii 588
Admiralty i iii 605
Adonis r ii 137
Adour r viii 170
Adrianople cit vi 150
Adriatic Sea vi 8
Aetna m vii 599, 734
Afghanistan pr ii 325
Africa iv 1
Agadir t iv 190
Agde t viii 237
Agen t viii 260
Agosta i vi 339
Agra t iii 82
Agra pr iii 81
Agram t vi 331
Aguadilla t v 586
Ahkaf ii 206
Ahmedabad city iii 69
Ai t viii 423
Aiagha Tag m ii 234
Aidab pt iv 149
Aigues Perse t viii 354
Aigues mortes t viii 233
Air r viii 166
Air dep viii 368
Aintab t ii 134
Aire t viii 474
Aisne dep viii 429
Aix t viii 207

Aix la Chapelle vii 244
Ajaccio t viii 201
Ajan coast iv 408
Ajandula r viii 9
Akhissar t ii 82
Akalzike ft ii 104
Akmetchet t vi 391
Aksakel l ii 13
Akserai t ii 77
Akshehr t ii 76
Akshehr l ii 69
Ak Tau m ii 362
Alabama r v 158
Alabama state v 196
Ala Dagh m ii 66
Alagon r viii 7
Alais t viii 231
Alak m ii 361
Aland i vi 491
Alaska v 54
Alava t viii 69
Alb m vii 39
Albania t vi 179
Albany city v 180
Albany ft v 79
Albarracin m viii 77
Albercho r viii 7
Albemarle Sound v 159
Albinen t vii 579
Albuquerque t v 326
Alby t viii 238
Alcala t viii 96
Alcamo r vii 743
Alcaniz r viii 77
Alcaraz t viii 99
Alcantara t viii 100
Aldan r ii 397
Alderney i viii 678, 692
Alençon t viii 460
Alet t vii 243
Alentejo viii 47
Aleoutian i v 53
Aleppo city ii 133
Alessandria t vii 644
Alexandretta t ii 135
Alexandria t iv 65
Algarves pr viii 48
Algiers iv 183
Alghero t vii 650
Alhama viii 116
Alicante t viii 88
Alicata t vii 739
Alicudi i vii 749
Alkmaar vii 660
Alla Schehr t ii 84
Allahabad t iii 95
Allan Water viii 685
Alleghany m v 152
Allendorf t vii 294
Aller r vii 45
Allier r viii 325
Allier dep viii 325
Almagro t viii 99
Almora t iii 127
Almond r viii 767
Alnwick t viii 726
Alps m vi 15, 557
Alpujarras m vi 17
Alsen i viii 592
Alsfeld t vii 301
Altai m ii 7, 390
Altamaha r v 158
Altamura t vii 718
Alter r vi 457
Altera t vii 227
Altona t viii 597
Alvarado r v 282
Amadia t ii 108
Amakusa i ii 527
Amanus m ii 66
Amasia t ii 72
Amastro t ii 74
Amathus t ii 87
Amatitlan t v 347
Amaxichi t vi 172
Amazon r v 356
Ambelakia t vi 160
Ambert t viii 355
Amberg t vii 389
Amboise t viii 312
Amboyna i iii 516
Ameland i viii 648
America v 1
Amersfoort t viii 648
Amersham t viii 715
Amhara t iv 134
Amiens t viii 471
Amlwich t viii 74.

Amergo i vi 168
Ampampetoca t iv 488
Amsterdam city viii 651
Amsterdam i iv 455
Amoor r ii 490
Anah t ii 115
Anahuac v 267
Anapa t ii 42
Anarghia pt ii 39
Anatolia pr ii 75
Anbari t ii 377
Ancona t vii 691
Ancova iv 434
Andalusia pr viii 103
Andaman i iii 360
Andernach t vii 248
Andes m v 363
Andorra repub viii 124
Andrichow t vi 685
Andros f vi 170
Andujar t viii 104
Anegada i v 587
Anet t viii 317
Angara r ii 396
Angazija i iv 422
Angermunde t vii 105
Angers t viii 287
Anglesey i viii 682
Anhalt duchy vii 312
Anhalt Bernbourg vii 314
Anhalt Dessau vii 313
Anhalt Kæthen vii 315
Anian Straits v 49
Angola coast iv 315
Angora t ii 77
Angouleme t viii 275
Angra t iv 490
Angra do Ilheo bay iv 338
Anguilla i v 589
Annam iii 370
Annan t viii 749
Annapolis N S t v 138
Anklam t vii 114
Annecy l viii 679
Anna Bona i iv 464
Annonay t viii 225
Anspach t vii 373
Antibes t viii 203
Anticosti i v 140
Antigua i v 590
Antilles i v 567
Antioch city ii 134
Antiparos vi 131
Antioquia t v 392
Antrim viii 780
Antwerp city viii 617
Anziko iv 335
Anzin t viii 476
Apalachian m v 4
Apalachicola r v 158
Apamea l ii 129
t ii 135
Apennine m vi 17, 594
Aphamieh t ii 135
Api i iii 592
Apolda t vii 281
Appenzel pr vii 569
Appleby t viii 729
Apt t viii 210
Apurimac r v 357
Aquila t vii 716
Arabia ii 189
Gulf ii 189
Arracan t iii 347
Arragon viii 10, 77
Araguay r v 358
Aral Sea ii 13, 364
Ararat m ii 5, 99
Aranu t vii 570
Aranca ft v 468
Arbe i vi 335
Arbil t ii 109
Arbois t viii 386
Archangel vi 447
Arcot pr iii 181
Archipelago vi 8, 123
Arcis sur Aube t viii 421
Arequipa t v 429
Arcueil t viii 456
Ardebil t ii 258
Ardeche r viii 166
Ardeche dep viii 220
Ardennes dep viii 426
Ardgis t ii 104
Ardila r viii 8
Ardres t viii 473
Ardschis r vi 239
Arendahl t viii 531

Arensberg vii 226
Arensburg t vi 524
Arezzo t vii 665
Argau vii 570
Argens r viii 170
Argentan t viii 334
Argenteuil t viii 443
Argentiere i viii 224
Argis Dag m ii 64
Argos t vi 162
Argostoli t vi 172
Arica t v 427
Ariege viii 245
Ariege dep viii 245
Arispe t v 330
Aripo t iii 246
Arkansas r v 157
Arkansas ter v 204
Arles kingd viii 209
Arlech l viii 679
Armagh cit viii 781
Armenia ii 98, 103
Armentieres t viii 478
Armorica viii 165
Arnheim t iii 565
Arno r vii 588, 661
Arnstadt t vii 309
Arran i viii 679, 683
Arras t viii 474
Arrou i iii 520
Arta t vi 181
Arundel t viii 700
Ary r viii 767
Asaph St t viii 747
Ascension i iv 461
Aschaffenbourg t vii 398
Aschraf t ii 264
Asia ii 1
Minor ii 63
Ashford t viii 734
Asphaltite l ii 12, 129, 154
Assam pr iii 136
Assiniboin r iv 75
Assumpcion t v 460
Asti t vii 644
Astorga t viii 73
Astoria ft v 207
Astrakan pr vi 409, 411
Asturian m viii 2
Asturias viii 70
Atanjauja t v 428
Atacama v 432
Athapescow r v 73
Athapescow l v 73
Athens cit vi 162
Athos m vi 157
Attinga t iii 214
Atlas m iv 152
Atrato r v 404
Aube dep viii 417
Aubeterre t viii 276
Aubusson t viii 328
Auch t viii 261
Aude dep viii 242
Audelys t viii 457
Audjelah pr iv 174
Augsbourg cit vii 398
Augustin St t v 204
Augustuwo t v 671
Aumale t viii 499
Aurillac t viii 340
Aurora i iii 592
Aurungabad t iii 157
Ausa t viii 82
Austria vii 483
Autun t viii 372
Auxerre t viii 377
Auxonne t viii 374
Ava kingd iii 347
r iii 32
cit iii 347
Avallon t viii 376
Aveiro t viii 46
Avellino t vii 716
Aventicum t vii 576
Aveyron dep viii 265
Avignon cit viii 210
Aviles t viii 70
Avila t viii 77
Avranches t viii 461
Avroee i viii 592
Ax t viii 246
Axius r vi 155
Axum t iv 130
Ayamonte t viii 109
Ayas t ii 79
Ayasaluk t ii 81
Aylesbury t viii 715

Ayr t viii 762
Azof Sea vi 386, 405
Azores i iv 482
Aztec king v 267

Baba Dagh m ii 67
Babelmandel str iv 3
Babylon cit ii 119
Babylonia pr ii 98
Bachmuth t vi 386
Backlowitz t vii 477
Badajos t viii 102
Baden grand dutchy vii 339
Baden t vii 352
Baden Austr t vii 504
Baeza t viii 104
Baffa pt ii 87
Baffin's Bay v 88
Bagdat cit ii 117
Bagneres de Luchon t viii 241
Bagnol les Bains t viii 230
Bahamas i v 587
Bahar pr iii 99
Bahar Nagash pr iv 151
Bahrein i ii 210
Bahr el Abiad r iv 20
Bahia pr v 540
Baibouth t ii 104
Baikal l ii 397
Baikalian m ii 391
Baireuth t vii 390
Bairut t ii 137
Bake Bake pr iv 335
Bajalance t viii 105
Bahtchi Sarai t vi 391
Bakou t ii 60
Bakskeer m ii 388
Bala t viii 747
Balaghan t ii 60
Balaghaut pr iii 192
Balaguer t viii 80
Balaklava t vi 392
Balakna t vi 559
Balaton l vi 245
Balbec cit ii 144
Bale canton vii 570
Bale cit vii 571
Baleares i viii 15, 119
Balfrush t ii 264
Balise t v 346
Balkh t ii 345
Balkan m vi 118
Balkaschi l ii 13
Ballanstadt t vii 315
Balta Wierda t vi 241
Baltimore cit v 189
Baltic Sea viii 569
Bamba pr iv 313, 318
Bambarra pr iv 250
Bambookans iv 219
Bamberg t vii 390
Bamoo t iii 349
Banbury t viii 714
Banka i iii 442
Bankok t iii 386
Banda i iii 519
Banff t viii 768
Bangalore t iii 199
Bangor t viii 747
Banialaka t vi 213
Bantam pr iii 453
Bar t vi 578
Bar-le-Duc t viii 407
Bar-sur-Aube t viii 418
Bar-sur-Seine t viii 419
Barbacoas pr v 392
Barbadoes i v 596
Barbary pr iv 171
Barbeacon t viii 739
Barbezieux t viii 276
Barbuda i v 591
Barby t vii 133
Barca pr iv 171
Barcelona cit viii 82
Bari, Terra di vii 718
Barma t iii 350
Baroda t iii 70
Barramahal pr iii 201
Barren i iii 362
Barth t vii 114
Bartholomew St i v 587
Bartin r ii 68
Bass Straits iii 545
Barbastro t viii 78
Bassora cit ii 120
Bastia t viii 202
Batavia cit iii 453
Batchian i iii 512

Bath t viii 695
Batjong t iii 382
Batopilas t v 331
Batroon t ii 137
Batta pr iv 314
Batticaloe t iii 254
Battas pr iii 435
Baumaris t viii 747
Bautzen t vii 278
Bavay t viii 475
Bavaria kingd vii 360
Bayerdorf t vii 395
Bayeux t viii 464
Bayonne t viii 251
Baza t viii 118
Beaucaire t viii 233
Beaujeu t viii 361
Beaumont t viii 439
Beaupreau t viii 288
Bazas t viii 255
Beauvais t viii 439
Bedfordshire viii 737
Bedford t viii 738
Beeder t iii 156
Befort t viii 395
Begamder t iv 133
Behrings i ii 447
Beibazar t ii 77
Beja t iv 147 viii 48
Bejapoor iii 168
Bejetsk t vi 549
Belfast t viii 780
Belgium kingd viii 605
Belgorod t vi 567
Belgrade t vi 218
Beit el Fakin t ii 217
Beira pr viii 46
Belley t viii 369
Bellac t viii 335
Bellay pr iii 193
Belle-Ile-en-Mer i viii 292
Belle-Isle i viii 173
Bellinzone t vii 579
Belligam t iii 252
Bellovar t vi 332
Beloor m ii 6, 361
Belt gr st viii 569
Belt lit st viii 569
Beloochistan pr ii 351
Belz t vi 687
Bemba Rouge r iv 338
Benares cit iii 96
Bencoolen t iii 439
Bender t vi 244, 379
Bender Abbas t ii 274
Bender Kœng t ii 274
Benevento t vii 693
Bengal pr iii 101
Bengore Head viii 684
Beni r v 357
Benin t iv 237
Benin coast iv 237
Benguela pr iv 317
Berar t iii 155
Berbice pr v 561
Berdyczew t vi 579
Berg vii 229
Bergamo t ii 84 vii 625
Berytus t ii 137
Bergues t viii 478
Bergen t vii 111 viii 530
Bergen-op-zoom t viii 662
Bergerac t viii 271
Beriquete pr v 392
Berkshire viii 712
Berlin cit vii 95
Bermudas i v 142
Bernau t vii 104
Bernay t viii 459
Bernbourg t vii 315
Berne canton vii 572
Berne cit vii 572
Bernice t iv 93
Bervie t viii 764
Berwick t viii 726
Besançon t viii 392
Beskow t vii 92
Bessarabia pr vi 379
Bessestadr t v 105
Betanzos t viii 72
Bethlehem t ii 153
Betic Mountains viii 5
Beutlingen t vii 337
Beyah r iii 17
Beziers t viii 237
Bhoondee pr iii 74
Bhurtpoor t iii 86
Bialystock pr vi 617

Biar r	viii	9
Biberach t	vii	338
Bibey r	viii	11
Biccanere pr	iii	73
Bidassoa r	viii	68
Bidgenee pr	iii	137
Bidlis pr	ii	108
Bienne l	vii	572
Biisk pr	ii	438
Bielitz t	vii	482
Biequen i	v	586
Bies Bosch l	viii	640
Bilasore t	iii	148
Bilbao t	viii	69
Biledulgerid pr	iv	196
Billiton i	iii	442
Billom t	viii	347
Bingen t	vii	302
Bir t	v	134
Birboom t	iii	113
Birkenfeld t	vii	196
Birman Empire	iii	340
Birmingham city	viii	738
Biorneborg t	vi	491
Biscay pr	viii	69
Biscay b	vi	7
Biscay New pr	v	270
Bissajos i	iv	225
Bissay i	iii	489
Bitche t	viii	402
Bithynia pr	ii	76
Bitolia t	vi	158
Bitonto t	vii	718
Black Hole	iii	105
Black Mountains	iv	343
Black Sea	vi	8
Blanc Mont	vii	586
Blanco c	iv	198
Blankanese t	viii	599
Blankenburg t	vii	318
Blaye t	viii	258
Blois t	viii	314
Blue Mountains, Jam.	v	580
Bochaia t	vi	651
Bona Vista i	iv	467
Bocholt t	vii	225
Bodmin t	viii	692
Bog r	vi	651
Bogdtcha Adassi t	ii	85
Bogdo m	ii	6
Boglipoor t	iii	100
Bogota cit	v	396
Bohemia pr	vii	437
Boianowa t	vii	32
Bois d'Amont t	viii	390
Bois le Duc t	viii	662
Bojador cape	iv	199
Bolchow t	vi	566
Bologna t	vii	690
Boluscham t	vi	244
Bombay cit	iii	158
Boa Vista i	iv	467
Bonn t	vii	239
Bona t	iv	185
Boni t	iii	496
Bonifaccio t	viii	202
Bootan pr	iii	134
Bopaul pr	iii	79
Boppart t	vii	248
Boorsa t	ii	75
Bordeaux cit	viii	255
Borja t	viii	77
Borissoglebsk t	vi	556
Borken t	vii	225
Borneo i	iii	476
Borneo t	iii	479
Bornholm i	viii	590
Bornoo king	iv	263
Borowsk t	vi	565
Bort t	viii	339
Borro i	iii	513
Bosa t	vii	650
Bosnia pr	vi	207
Bosphorus str	vi 122	ii 74
Boston Am cit	v	175
Boston Eng t	viii	721
Bostra t	ii	147
Botany Bay	iii	538
Bothin pr	ii	147
Bothnia gulph of	viii	538
Botzen t	vii	518
Bouches du Rhone dep	viii	207
Bouillon t	viii	635
Boulogne t	viii	472
Bourbon i	iv	444
Bourbon l'Archambaud t	viii	326
Bourbon Vendee t	viii	281

Bourbon les Bains t viii 415
Bourg en Bresse t viii 369
Bourgas b vi 152
Bourges t viii 330
Boussac t viii 329
Bouxviller t viii 400
Bouzonville t viii 402
Boyamo t v 579
Bradford t viii 724
Braga t viii 46
Brahestadt t vi 493
Brahmapootra r ii 619 iii 21
Brandenburg pr vii 83
Brandenburg t vii 101
Brandon St i iv 477
Brantome t viii 272
Braunbach t vii 322
Braunfels t vii 254
Braunsberg t vii 21
Brava t iv 406
Brava i iv 467
Brava del Norte r v 282
Brazza i vi 335
Brecknock t viii 745
Brazil king v 507
Breda t viii 663
Bregenz t vii 517
Bremen t vii 420
Brenta r vii 588
Brescia t vii 626
Breslau t vii 77
Bressuire t viii 282
Breves la Galliarde t viii 338
Brest t viii 297
Briançon t viii 214
Briansk t vi 566
Bridgetown t v 596
Brie t viii 403
Brieg t vii 579
Brienne t viii 419
Brighton t viii 700
Brignolles t viii 205
Brioude t viii 229
Bristol cit viii 696
Bristol channel viii 679
Britain Great viii 677
British channel vi 7
Brindisi t vii 718
Broach t iii 71
Brody t vi 687
Broek t viii 650
Bruguiere t viii 239
Bruck t vii 506
Bruges cit viii 621
Brunn t vii 476
Brunswick Duchy vii 316
Brunswick cit vii 317
Brussels cit viii 627
Brzesk pr vi 617
Brzesc t vi 667
Bua i vi 335
Bublague r viii 8
Bucharia pr ii 378
Bucharest t vi 239
Buckebourg t vii 301
Buckinghamshire viii 715
Buda t vi 305
Budakshan pr ii 379
Buenos Ayres pr v 456
Buenos Ayres cit v 465
Bug r vi 651
Bukharia t ii 379
Bukowine pr vi 692
Bular i iv 226
Bulgaria pr vi 225
Burford t viii 715
Burdwar pr iii 113
Burg t vii 134
Burges t viii 75
Burkdorf t vii 572
Busco t vi 239
Bute i viii 766
Butung i iii 503

Cabrera i viii 121
Cabinda t iv 310
Cabros i v 453
Cacamo t ii 80
Cachenonaga t v 134
Cachar pr iii 140
Cacongo t iv 309
Caceres t viii 101
Cadiz t viii 110
Cader Idris m viii 743
Caen t viii 465
Caermarthen sh viii 743
Caernarvonshire viii 744
Caerwys t viii 747

Caffa t vi 393
Caffraria iv 372
Cagliari t vii 649
Cahors t viii 269
Cahokia t v 102
Cai song fou t ii 584
Cairo cit iv 71
Caithness t viii 769
Calabar t iv 238
Calabria pr vii 720
Calais, Pas de dep viii 472
Calais t viii 473
Calamian i iii 490
Calca y Lares v 429
Calcutta cit iii 104
Calatagirone t vii 739
Caledonia New iii 587
Calicut t iii 209
California v 323
California N v 322
Calimno t ii 87
Callao t v 425
Callington t viii 692
Calmar t viii 554
Calvados viii 463
Calva t viii 202
Caltura t iii 251
Calpenteen pr iii 246
Cambay t iii 68
Calatayud t viii 77
Cambodia pr iii 381
Cambray t viii 475
Cambridge t viii 718
Cambridge sh viii 718
Cameroom r iv 238
Campan t viii 248
Campania pr vii 696
Campeachy t. v 346
Camper t viii 646
Canada v 115
Canara pr iii 202
Canary i iv 468
Canary Gr iv 469
Canches v 419
Candobar t ii 345
Candia i vi 166
Candia t vi 167
Cangas de Onis t viii 70
Candy t iii 256
Canes pr v 429
Canandaigua l v 178
Canea t vi 167
Canete t v 427
Cangorima t ii 527
Caniclon pr ii 615
Cannæ t vii 717
Cannes t viii 203
Cantal dep viii 339
Canterbury t viii 701
Canton cit ii 580
Cantabria m viii 2
Cantyre Mull viii 683
Canso str v 139
Cape Fear r v 158
Cape Breton i v 139
Cape Town iv 363
Cape Verd i iv 465
Capitanata pr vii 717
Capo d'Istria t vii 535
Cappadocia pr ii 77
Capua t vii 705
Caraccas pr v 381
Caraccas t v 384
Caraim pr ii 615
Caranja i iii 162
Carcassone t viii 243
Caraman t ii 77
Caramania pr ii 70
Cardiff t viii 745
Cardigan t viii 746
Cardiganshire viii 744
Cardona t viii 81
Carelia pr vi 485
Carentan t viii 463
Carfax t viii 694
Cariacou i v 595
Caribean Sea v 568
Carhaix t viii 296
Carlisle t viii 728
Cæsarea t ii 78
Carlowitz t vi 334
Carlsbad t vii 465
Carlscrona t viii 554
Carlsruhe t vii 350
Carmague t viii 209
Carmel m ii 149
Carmoe t viii 534
Carnatic pr iii 175

Carnac t viii 293
Caroline i iii 620
Carolina North v 192
Carolina South v 193
Caronata i vi 335
Carpathian m vi 279
Carpentras t viii 211
Carrara t vii 657
Carnsore cape viii 684
Carron t viii 768
Carrickfergus t viii 780
Carrock m viii 728
Carthage t iv 182
Carthagena t Sp viii 118
Carthagena t Am v 400
Carthago t v 354
Casal t vii 644
Cashmere pr ii 353
Cashgar pr ii 470
Casius m ii 120
Caspian Sea ii 13, 309
Cashel t viii 785
Cassay pr iii 345
Cassel t vii 294
Cassiquiare r v 362
Castel Naudary viii 242
Castel Brasso i ii 87
Castile Old viii 74
Castile New viii 89
Castellane t viii 205
Carrion de los Condes t viii 75
Castlebar t viii 781
Castletown viii 729
Castoria t vi 159
Castro t ii 85
Catalonia pr viii 79
Catania t vii 735
Castellon t viii 87
Cattaro t vi 339
Caubul t ii 345
Caucasus m ii 5, 28
Caufiristan pr ii 637
Catmandoo t iii 130
Caudebec t viii 468
Cauterets t viii 248
Cavery r iii 24
Caxamarca t v 428
Cayenne t v 563
Cayuga l v 178
Cenis m vii 642
Celebes i iii 495
Celaya t v 334
Cephalonia i vi 172
Ceram i iii 513
Ceret t viii 245
Cerigo i vi 173
Cerro das Esmeraldas m v 509
Cerro do Frio m v 509
Cervera t viii 80
Cette t viii 236
Cettina r vi 334
Ceuta t iv 189
Cevennes m vi 17
Ceylon i iii 215
Chablis t viii 376
Chaboras r ii 112
Chácapayas t v 428
Chagacamus t v 598
Chalchkan pr iii 58
Chalons sur Marne t viii 423
Chalons sur Saone t viii 371
Chambertin t viii 374
Chamberry t vii 641
Chambon t viii 346
Chambord t viii 315
Champlain l v 178
Chandernagore t iii 108
Chanderee t iii 77
Chanza r viii 8
Champtercier t viii 206
Charkof t vi 525
Chaux r ii 77
Charente dep viii 264
Chartreuse Gr viii 216
Charlemont t viii 429
Charlestown Mass t v 175
Charleston S C cit v 195
Charleville t viii 428
Charnwood forest viii 736
Charolles t viii 371
Chartres t viii 318
Chateau du Loire viii 308
Chateaudun viii 319
Chateau Chinon viii 324
Chateaulin t viii 296
Chateau Gonthier viii 305
Chateau Salines viii 412
Chateau Cornet viii 692

Chateau Thierry viii 432
Chatham t viii 702
Chatham i iii 586
Charybdis vii 602
Chatillon t viii 375
Chateauroux t viii 333
Chateaubriant t viii 291
Chaudes Aigues t viii 341
Chaumont t viii 417
Chatellerault t viii 284
Chelmsford t viii 717
Chelsea t viii 711
Chemillé t viii 288
Chemnitz t vii 277
Chenab r iii 16
Chepstow t viii 742
Cheduba i iii 347
Cher r viii 167
Cher dep viii 329
Cherwell r viii 713
Cherbourg t viii 462
Cherbury t viii 713
Cheribon pr iii 454
Cherso i vi 375
Chesapeak Bay v 159
Cheshire viii 733
Chester t viii 733
Cheviot m viii 679, 725
Chiapa pr v 348
Chicay I v 356
Chichester t viii 700
Chilaw t iii 247
Chihuahua pr v 331
Chili v 448
Chiloa t v 427
Chiloe i v 452
Chiltern Hills viii 715
Chimborazo m v 370, 405
China Emp ii 549
Chinon t viii 313
Chios i ii 85
Chinsura t iii 108
Chinshan i ii 574
Chittore t iii 75
Chittagong pr iii 122
Chotzim t vi 244
Cholet t viii 288
Cholula pr v 342
Choco pr v 392, 403
Choni t ii 37
Chillambaram t iii 183
Chingleput pr iii 184
Chitteldroog t iii 199
Christiana t viii 532
Christiansand t viii 531
Christianstadt W I v 588
Christianstadt Swed viii 553
Christopher St i v 591
Chuquisaca t v 431
Chumularia m ii 619
Chunsag t ii 58
Churchill r v 75
Ciarchian t ii 471
Cibao m v 582
Cilicia pr ii 77
Cinca r viii 10
Cimbebas pr iv 338
Cinaloa pr v 330
Cincinnati cit v 202
Cintra t viii 45
Circars pr iii 152
Circassia pr ii 45
Circumcision i iv 459
Cirey t viii 211
Ciudad Real t viii 99
Ciudad Rodrigo t viii 74
Civita Vecchina t vii 689
Civray t viii 283
Clackmannan t viii 763
Clair St I v 115
Clairac t viii 260
Clamecy t viii 323
Clermont Oise t viii 438
Clermont t viii 348
Cleves t vii 232
Clifton t viii 696
Clisson t viii 291
Clonmel viii 785
Cloud St t viii 442
Cluny t viii 371
Clyde r viii 680
Coa r viii 9
Coal r iii 541
Coanza r iv 292
Coban t v 349
Cobbe t iv 259
Cobi des ii 6
Coblentz t vii 247

Cobourg t vii 286
Cochin pr iii 210
Cochin China iii 372
Cocoas i iii 604
Cockermouth t viii 728
Coimbatoor pr iii 200
Cognac t viii 276
Cohahuila pr v 331
Coimbra t viii 46
Coire t vii 580
Colberg t vii 116
Colchester t viii 717
Colebrook viii 740
Colapoor pr iii 172
Colouri i vi 169
Colmar t viii 396
Cologne cit vii 236
Colmars t viii 206
Colombia rep v 499
Colorado r v 282
Columbia dis v 191
Columbia r v 64
Columbo t iii 247
Comer castle viii 686
Comayagua t v 349
Combooconam t iii 186
Cominones t viii 478
Commercy t viii 407
Como l vii 625
Comoro i iv 421
Comorin cape iii 11, 192
Compiegne t viii 437
Compostella t v 333
Concarneau t viii 296
Concepcion t v 452
Conde t viii 464
Condom t viii 261
Comarca Deserta pr v 475
Coni t vii 644
Condor i iii 380
Confolans t viii 275
Congo pr iv 289
Coniston Mere viii 730
Connaught t viii 780
Connecticut st v 177
Connecticut r v 159
Constance t vii 355
Constantia t ii 88
Constantina t iv 185
Constantinople cit vi 145
Coond m ii 327
Contrexeville t viii 409
Copper i v 54
Cook's str iii 574
Cooch Bahar pr iii 117
Coppermine r v 74
Copenhagen cit viii 586
Copiapo pr v 450
Coquimbo t v 450
Corbach t vii 320
Corbeil t viii 447
Cordilleras m v 274, 364
Coortallum pr iii 191
Cordova t viii 105
Corduene m ii 99
Corea pr ii 496
Corfu i vi 171
Corinth t vi 162
Cork t viii 786
Coria t viii 100
Cornwall viii 692
Coro t v 385
Coromandel pr iii 175
Corunna t viii 72
Correze t viii 337
Corrib l viii 685
Corrientes pr v 461
Corritiva pr v 533
Cosigirachui t v 331
Cosne t viii 323
Cotalis t ii 37
Cotyœum t ii 76
Corsica i viii 174
Corte t viii 202
Cortona t vii 665
Corvo i iv 493
Corvoda t v 455
Cos i ii 87
Coslin t vii 117
Cossimbazar t iii 113
Cosseir t iv 92
Costa Rica pr v 353
Cote d'Or dep viii 372
Cotes du Nord viii 298
Cotopaxi m v 406
Cottbus t vii 92
Coutances t viii 461
Cotrona t vii 721

Courtray t viii 623
Creuse viii 328
Courland pr vi 521
Courtisou t viii 424
Craon t viii 305
Coventry t viii 738
Cracow t vi 672
Cranganor t iii 212
Crepy t viii 436
Crapone t viii 288
Creil t viii 437
Cremona l vii 625
Crefeld t vii 234
Cricklade t viii 698
Crimea vi 387
Croatia vi 207, 336
Cronstadt t vi 510
Crotona t vii 721
Cromarty t viii 769
Cruz Sta i v 588
Crooked l v 178
Ctesiphon t ii 118
Cuba i v 577
Cuença t viii 89
Cutch pr iii 58
Cuiaba t v 544
Culiacan pr v 330
Cuddalore t iii 183
Culm t vii 24
Cuchivara r v 357
Cuddapah pr iii 194
Cumana t v 385
Cumania pr vi 321
Cumberland viii 728
Cuneick m viii 5
Cupar t viii 764
Curaçao i v 598
Curuguaty t v 461
Curzola i vi 336
Custrin t vii 104
Cuyo pr v 453
Cuzco cit v 425
Curisch Haf vii 14
Cyclades i vi 168
Cusset t viii 327
Cydnus r ii 80
Cyprus i ii 87
Cyrene t iv 172
Cythera i vi 173
Cyzicus t ii 75
Czany l ii 13
Czarskoe Selo vi 509
Czirknitz l vii 530
Czersk t vi 667
Czernowitz t vi 692

Dacca t iii 121
Dacca Jelalpoor pr iii 120
Daghestan pr ii 54
Dahalar i iv 150
Dahistan pr ii 278
Dahomey pr iv 235
Dalecarlia pr viii 537
Dalmatia pr vi 206, 334
Damar t ii 216
Damascus t ii 145
Darah pr iv 196
Damietta t iv 68
Dammartin t viii 433
Damota pr iv 134
Dampier's Archipelago i iii 563
Damkali pr iv 151
Dantzic t vii 21
Danube r vi 288
Daoorian m ii 392
Dardanian m vi 119
Darfoor pr iv 256
Dar Kullah pr iv 260
Dara t ii 113
Dar Kab des iv 259
Darien pr v 400
Darmstadt t vii 302
Darnac t viii 335
Dart r viii 694
Dartmoor t viii 693
Dar el Abiad pr iv 261
Dar Bergoo pr iv 260
David's St t viii 746
Damel pr iv 221
Dekna pr iv 203
Darwar t iii 173
Dax t viii 252
Dead Sea ii 129, 154
Dean t viii 697
Debrezzin t vi 316
Debrota t vi 339
Deccan pr iii 142
Dee r viii 746

Deir t iv 117
Delad el Djerid pr iv 196
Delaware r v 159
Delaware st v 189
Deft t viii 660
Delhi pr & cit iii 87
Dents, Çote de iv 230
Delmenhorst t vii 195
Delos i vi 170
Delta i iv 22
Demavend m ii 234
Dodos r iv 245
D'Endracht's Land iii 560
Dembea pr iv 133
Demerary pr v 560
Demmin t vii 114
Denain t viii 476
Denbigh t viii 746
Denderah t iv 82
Denia i iv 458
Denis St t viii 455
Denmark viii 569
Deptford t viii 702
Derbend t ii 58
Derbyshire viii 734
Derby t viii 734
Derne t iv 172
Derwent l viii 680, 728
Desiderade i v 592
Des Moines r v 157
Desna r vi 572
Desolation i iv 456
Dessau t vii 314
Detmold t vii 306
Deux Ponts t vii 403
Deux Sevres dep viii 281
Deventer t viii 646
Deveron r viii 768
Devonshire viii 693
De Witt's Land iii 561
Diala r ii 108
Diarbekir pr ii 111
Dibbie l iv 251
Diego Alvarez i iv 459
Diego Rodriguez i iv 450
Die t viii 213
Diemen, Van's, Land iii 545
Dieppe t viii 470
Dieuze t viii 412
Dignes t viii 205
Dijon t viii 373
Dillemburg t vii 322
Dina i iv 456
Dinan t viii 300
Dinant t viii 626
Dinajepoor pr iii 115
Dindigul pr iii 188
Disco i v 91
Dinkelsfuhl t vii 395
Dismal Swamp v 156
Ditz t vii 322
Diu t iii 171
Dixan t iv 131
Djamdeh t ii 120
Djezira t ii 108
Djibid r iv 185
Djirdjeh t iv 81
Djizeh t iv 73
Djerasch t ii 147
Djiof pr ii 206
Djobla t ii 216
Dmitrof t vi 553
Dnieper r vi 572
Dniester r vi 377, 651
Doab pr iii 81
Doaraca i iii 67
Dobrilugk t vii 92
Dobrudscha pr vi 228
Dobschan t vi 311
Dofrine m vi 14
Dogo i vi 524
Dolce r v 454
Dole t viii 335
Dolgelly t viii 747
Dolphin t viii 692
Dominica i v 593
Doehlen t vii 123
Domingo St t v 584
Domremy t viii 408
Don r vi 404
Dominique St r iv 222
Dongola pr iv 119
Donnai pr iii 380
Donkin t iii 388
Dorpat t vi 521
Dorat t viii 335
Dooranee pr ii 329
Dorchester t viii 695

Dordogne r	viii	166
Dordogne dep	viii	270
Doran t	ii	216
Dornoch pr	viii	679
Dornoch t	viii	769
Doroca t	viii	77
Dorogobousch t	vi	548
Dorsetshire	viii	695
Dort t	viii	661
Dortmund t	vii	227
Dotis t	vi	324
Douai t	viii	477
Doubs r	viii	385
Doubs dep	viii	390
Doué t	viii	246
Douglas t	viii	729
Dourdan t	viii	446
Dovre m	viii	523
Dover t	viii	701
Doux r	viii	271
Dowletabad t	iii	158
Down Patrick t	viii	781
Draguignan t	viii	205
Drama t	vi	157
Drave r	vi	291
Dresden cit	vii	274
Drenchworth t	viii	713
Dreux t	viii	317
Drogheda t	viii	784
Drohobitz t	vi	687
Drome r	viii	166
Drome dep	viii	213
Drontheim t	viii	530
Drottningholm	viii	551
Droitwich t	viii	741
Dublin cit	viii	781
Dubno t	vi	579
Dubrowna t	vi	615
Duden r	ii	80
Duero r	viii	8
Duisburg t	vii	234
Duke of York's Island	iii	605
Dumbarton t	viii	766
Dumfront t	viii	460
Dumfries t	viii	748
Dun le Roi t	viii	330
Duna r	vi	517
Dumersee l	vii	205
Dulgadir Illi pr	ii	79
Dundee t	viii	764
Dunfermline t	viii	763
Dunkirk t	viii	479
Dunse t	viii	756
Dunstable t	viii	738
Dunsmore Heath	viii	739
Dunvegan t	viii	768
Durance r	viii	166
Durango pr	v	330
Durazzo t	vi	184
Duren t	vii	246
Durham sh	viii	724
Durham t	viii	725
Durra l	ii	236
Durtal t	viii	286
Dusseldorf t	vii	234
Dylem t	ii	263
Dwina r	vi	444
Earn Lough	viii	685
Easter i	iii	639
Ebelai l	ii	399
Ebelun l	ii	13
Ebersdorf t	vii	311
Ebró r	viii	10
Ebsambool t	iv	118
Edel's Land	iii	560
Edessa t	vi	159
Edgehill	viii	739
Edinburgh cit	viii	756
Eddystone	viii	694
Eduam t	viii	755
Eger r	vii	441
Eger t	vii	465
Egg i	viii	699
Egripo i	vi	170
Egypt	iv	19
Eichstadt t	vii	389
Eisenstadt t	vii	324
Eisleben t	vii	127
Eisenach t	vii	282
Ekaterinburg pr	ii	431
Elam pr	ii	266
El Ared pr	ii	204
Elba i	vii	668
Elbe r	vii	45
Elberfeld t	vii	235
Elbeuf t	viii	469
Elbing t	vii	23

El Dorado pr v 564
Elephanta i iii 161
Elephantine i iv 91
Elgin t viii 768
Elias St m v 58
Elkas Dagh m ii 67
Ellora t iii 158
Ellwangen t vii 336
El margi l ii 129
Elne t viii 245
Elsineur t viii 589
Elrick t vii 130
Elvas t viii 48
Ely i viii 719
Elythia t iv 89
Embrun t viii 214
Embden t vii 217
Emerald m iv 94
Emessa t ii 135
Emmerich t vii 232
Emouy t ii 576
Ems r vii 45
Endeavour r iii 566
Endery t ii 58
Engia i vi 159
England viii 688
Enghein t viii 447
Ens t vii 507
Ens r vii 42
Entre Douro e Minho pr viii 46
Epernay t viii 422
Epernon t viii 317
Ephesus t ii 81
Epinal t viii 410
Epirus pr vi 179
Eponina t viii 416
Epping forest viii 717
Eresma r viii 9
Erekli t ii 74
Erfurt t vii 129
Erie l v 116
Erivan l ii 236, 258
Erivan t ii 258
Erlangen t vii 393
Erlau t vi 312
Ermeland t vii 21
Erment t iv 88
Ermonville t viii 437
Erzroom t ii 104
Erzenjian t ii 104
Ertz Gebirge m vii 269
Escurial palace viii 96
Eschwege t vii 294
Esla r viii 8
Esneh t iv 88
Esmeraldas, Cerro das m v 509
Es salth t ii 147
Essek t vii 333
Essequebo r v 554
Essequebo t v 560
Essex county viii 716
Esslingen t vii 336
Essonne r viii 447
Esterhaza t vii 325
Estepona t viii 113
Esthonia pr vi 526
Estremadura pr viii 99
Estremos t viii 47
Estairs t viii 478
Etain t viii 406
Etampes t viii 446
Ethiopia iv 289
Etna m vii 734
Etymander r ii 328
Eupen t vii 246
Eugeniusburgh t vi 320
Euphrates r ii 100
Eure r viii 168
Europe vi 1
Eustatia St i v 590
Euxine Sea vi 121
Eure dep viii 456
Eure et Loire dep viii 316
Evora t viii 47
Evreux t viii 457
Ex r viii 693
Exeter t viii 693
Ex moor viii 693
Exmouth t viii 693
Eyeos pr iv 236
Faizoom t iv 78
Fal r viii 693
Falaise t viii 464
Falkirk t viii 763
Falkland i v 482

Falmouth t viii 693
False Bay iv 363
Falun t viii 545
Falster i viii 590
Famagouste t ii 88
Famars t viii 476
Fanegoria t ii 43
Fanoee i viii 592
Farewell Cape v 91
Faro t viii 48
Fatra m vi 280
Fatsisio i ii 528
Faversham t viii 701
Fayal i iv 490
Fecamp t viii 467
Fehsten l vi 517
Federsee l vii 326
Femern i viii 592
Felletin t viii 328
Felsæ Banya t vi 313
Ferlach t vii 532
Fere t viii 431
Fernando Po i iv 462
Ferro i iv 473
Ferrara t vii 691
Ferrol t viii 72
Ferté Milon t viii 432
Ferté sous Jouarie t viii 433
Feyjee i iii 623
Fez pr iv 189
Fezzan pr iv 174
Fidjé i viii 534
Fifeshire viii 763
Figueras t viii 79
Finisterre dep viii 294
Figeac t viii 268
Finland pr vi 479, 490
Finland gulf vi 502
Fionia i viii 590
Firando i ii 527
Fiume t vi 332
Flensborg t viii 591
Fleurance t viii 262
Fleurieu i v 62
Flanders E pr viii 612
Flanders W pr viii 621
Fleurus t viii 624
Fleury t viii 458
Flint t viii 746
Flintshire viii 744
Florac t viii 230
Florence cit vii 663
Flores i iv 493
Floris i iii 525
Florida ter v 204
Foeroe i viii 600
Fogaras t vi 342
Foggia t vii 717
Foehr i viii 592
Foix t viii 246
Fokschani t vi 240
Fondi t vii 705
Fontainbleau t viii 434
Fontaine Française viii 375
Fontarrabia t viii 69
Fontenay aux Roses t viii 456
Fontenay le Comte t viii 280
Fontenoy t viii 624
Foret t viii 282
Forfar t viii 764
Formosa i ii 576
Fortaventura t iv 469
Forth r viii 680
Fotschia t vi 216
Fougerolles t viii 381
Fougueres t viii 301
Fou Kien pr ii 576
Foulahs pr iv 217
Foyle l viii 780
France viii 139
Franco Celtic m viii 164
France, Isle of iv 447
Frankfort on the Maine t vii 429
Frankfort on the Oder t vii 91
Frankenhausen t vii 308
Frankenthal t vii 403
Frat r ii 100
Fraustadt t vii 31
Fredericia t viii 591
Frederictown v 136
Frejus t viii 203
Freiberg t vii 277
Freewill i iii 611
Frederikshall t viii 533
Frederiksteen t viii 533
Freysing t vii 385
Frederickstadt t viii 532
Friburg t vii 575

Friendly i iii 623
Friderikshaab t v 91
Friedensberg t vi 612
Frojen i viii 534
Frisch Haf b vii 14
Fromentera i viii 15
Fyzabad t iii 94
Fuego i iv 467
Fuego, Terra del i v 481
Fuen Ho r ii 556
Fulda t vii 296
Funchal t iv 481
Funfkirchen t vi 325
Furruckabad t iii 85
Furness t viii 730
Furstemborg t vii 92
Furth t vii 394
Fuorconstrati t vi 312
Fumay t viii 428
Futtispoor t iii 84

Gaboon r iv 239
Gabriel r viii 11
Gadames pr iv 182
Gaeta t vii 705
Gaillac t viii 239
Galacz t v 245
Galam pr iv 218
Galata t vi 149
Galatia pr ii 76
Galilee pr ii 147
Galitzia pr vi 675
Gallapagos i v 407
Gallegos r viii 10
Gallicia pr viii 70
Galitsch t vi 557
Gallipoli t vii 719
Galloway Mull viii 748
Galway t viii 781
Gambia r iii 208
Gama pr iv 255
Gange t viii 234
Ganges r iii 18
Ganjam pr iii 153
Gaoor pr ii 380
Gap t viii 214
Gard r viii 166
Gard dep viii 231
Gariep r iv 340
Garonne r viii 165
Garonne dep viii 261
Garsten t vii 508
Gaspé pr v 135
Gateshead t viii 727
Gaza t ii 149
Gebail t ii 137
Gefle t viii 545
Geldern t vii 233
Geneva t Swit vii 578
Geneva l vii 577
Geneva canton vii 577
Geneva N Y t v 179
Genil r viii 9
Gensa cit vii 645
George III i v 67
George l v 178
Georgia, Asia pr ii 32
Georgia, U S st v 196
Georgievsk t ii 45
Gera t vii 311
Gerasa t ii 147
Gerardmer t viii 411
Gergovia m viii 347
Gerace t vii 722
Gerdauen t vii 21
German Ocean vi 5
Germany vii 34
Germain St t viii 441
Germersheim t vii 403
Gerunda t viii 80
Gers r viii 165
Gesenker Gebirge m vii 37
Getha pr ii 475
Gerone t viii 89
Geyser spring v 101
Gex t viii 370
Gruaf Reinet pr iv 362
Great Fish River iv 340
Ghauts m iii 9
Ghelindjik t ii 42
Ghent t viii 619
Ghiznee pr ii 329
Giant's Causeway viii 686
Gibraltar viii 6
Giessen t vii 301
Gijon t viii 70
Gihon r ii 374
Gilolo i iii 511

Gioustendil t vi 157
Gingiro pr iv 414
Gironde dep viii 254
Girgenti t vii 739
Gisors t viii 457
Giupana i vi 339
Givet t viii 429
Glamorganshire viii 745
Glaris canton vii 574
Glasgow cit viii 760
Glogau t vii 81
Glommen r viii 523
Gloucester Eng t viii 697
Gloucestershire viii 695
Gloucester Mass t v 175
Gluckow t vi 577
Gluckstadt t viii 523
Gmunden t vii 508
Gnesne t vii 32
Goa t iii 171
Goalpara t iii 117
Goertz t vii 534
Godavery r iii 24
Goetta r viii 538
Gojam pr iv 133
Golconda pr iii 157
Gold Coast iv 232
Gomera i iv 472
Gondar t iv 133
Good Hope c iv 339
Gorgona i v 403
Gordian m ii 99
Goree i iv 217
Gori t ii 35
Goring t viii 715
Gorosuara pr v 522
Gorlice t vii 685
Goslar t vii 215
Gotha t vii 286
Gothland i viii 539
Gottenburg t viii 552
Gottingen t vii 214
Gottschee t vii 534
Gough i iv 459
Gotto i ii 528
Goyaz pr v 339
Gour t iii 116
Gournay t viii 469
Grand Para t v 543
Grand t viii 409
Grand Canary i iv 469
Gransee t vii 103
Grampians m viii 679
Granville t viii 461
Gray t viii 384
Graustadt t vii 403
Gratz t vii 524
Graudentz t vii 24
Graditz t vii 123
Grasse t viii 205
Graciosa i iv 496
Gravelines t viii 478
Gravosa t vi 338
Greece vi 133, 161
Greenland v 90
Greenock t viii 762
Greenwich t viii 702
Green Mountains v 152
Greifswalde t vii 114
Greitz t vii 310
Grenadines i v 595
Grenada pr viii 112
Grenada cit viii 117
Grenade t viii 239
Greussen t vii 309
Grenoble t viii 215
Grisons pr viii 579
Groaix i viii 173
Grodno t vi 611
Groningen t viii 644
Gros Waradin t vi 317
Grossa i vi 335
Guadalema r viii 8
Guadalquivir r viii 9
Guadalaviar r viii 11
Guadalaxara t Am v 332
Guadalaxara t Sp viii 89
Guadalope r viii 10
Guadaloupe i v 591
Guadarrama r viii 7
Guadiana r viii 8
Guagetlan t v 348
Guadermena r viii 9
Guapare r v 358
Guadix t viii 118
Guamanga t v 429
Guanca Velica t v 428
Gualdar t iv 469

Guapihi r v 358
Guanaxuato t v 334
Guatimala pr v 346
Guatimala cit v 347
Guyaquil t v 405
Guazigay b v 544
Guaxaca pr v 344
Guinea pr iv 206
Gueret t viii 329
Guise t viii 430
Gundwana pr iii 144
Guntoor pr iii 153
Gumbinnen t vii 20
Gunz t vi 325
Guria pr ii 32
Gurwal pr iii 125
Gurkfeld t vii 533
Guilamerk t ii 108
Guipuscoa pr viii 68
Guerande t viii 291
Guernsey i viii 678, 692
Guilford t viii 712
Guyangios t vi 312
Guiana pr v 553
Guiana, Dutch v 561
Guiana, French v 563
Guinea pr iv 230
Guinea New iii 606
Guines t viii 473
Gustavia t v 589
Guzel Hissar t ii 82
Guzerat pr iii 60

Haarlem t viii 655
Habesh pr iv 144
Habsal t vi 519
Hæhe m vii 39
Hackney t viii 711
Haddington t viii 756
Hadramaut pr ii 210
Hagen t vii 227
Haguenau t viii 400
Haiffa t ii 149
Hai nan i ii 581
Hajar pr ii 209
Halberstadt t vii 132
Halmburg t vii 506
Hague t viii 658
Haiti i v 585
Halifax Eng t viii 724
Halifax N S t v 138
Hall t vii 518
Halle t vii 125
Halys r ii 68
Halstadt t vii 508
Hamadan t ii 255
Hamath t ii 135
Hamburg t vii 422
Hamil pr ii 476
Hammerfest t viii 529
Hamm t vii 226
Hampshire viii 698
Hampton Court viii 711
Han tcheou fou t ii 575
Hanau t vii 296
Hanover kingd vii 198
Hanover cit vii 212
Hanse Towns vii 417
Harlingen t viii 645
Haroodjeh pr iv 174
Hartford t viii 715
Hartz m vii 39
Harwich t viii 717
Harzgerode t vii 315
Hastings t viii 700
Hauran pr ii 146
Haut Barr t viii 400
Hautes Alpes dep viii 213
Hautes Pyrenees dep viii 246
Havana t v 578
Havel r vii 46
Havre t viii 467
Hawkesbury r iii 530
Hazebrouck t viii 478
Hearne's r v 74
Hebrides i viii 679, 683
Hebrides New i iii 589
Hebron t ii 153
Hecla m v 100
Heckingen t vii 357
Hedjaz pr ii 202
Heidelberg t vii 349
Heilige Damm vii 183
Heinola pr vi 487
Helder t viii 649
Helena St i iv 460
Helier St t viii 691
Helleh t ii 119

Helmstadt t viii 553
Helsingfors pr vi 487
Helsingfors t vi 489
Hems t ii 135
Hemus m vi 17, 118
Herat pr ii 349
Herat t ii 278
Herculaneum t vii 712
Hercynian m vii 36
Hereford t viii 741
Herefordshire viii 741
Herford t vii 223
Herizan t vii 569
Hermanstadt t vi 341
Hermon m ii 127
Hermit's i iii 606
Hermus r ii 68
Heroopolis cit iv 50
Hertford t viii 715
Hertfordshire viii 715
Herzgovina pr vi 206
Hesse pr vii 287
Hesse Homberg pr vii 297
Hesse Darmstadt vii 298
Hesse Hechingen vii 356
Hesse Sigmaringen vii 357
Hetzerdara r ii 234
Heststæd t vii 128
Heugton t viii 692
Heydé t viii 599
Hibueras pr v 349
Hiddensee i vii 110
Highlands Scotch viii 764
Hielmar l viii 538
Hieropolis t ii 134
Hilm t vii 309
Hildersheim t vii 215
Himmaleh m iii 5
Hindmend r ii 236
Hindoo Coosh m ii 326
Hinzouan i iv 421
Hirson t viii 430
Hispaniola i v 582
Hoan Kiang r ii 556
Hoang Ho r ii 555
Hoei Ho r ii 556
Honan pr ii 584
Hobart Town iii 550
Hoff t vii 391
Hof Geismar t vii 294
Hogos i iv 117
Hohenstaufen t vii 337
Hohenzollern pr vii 356
Hohenzollern Heckingen pr vii 356
Hohenzollern Sigmaringen pr vii 357
Hoho nor l ii 14
Holland viii 637
Holland, New iii 528
Holy Well t viii 747
Holsen t vii 320
Holstein pr viii 592
Holzappel t vii 322
Homburg t vii 297
Honda r v 346
Hondo pr iv 231
Hondtschoote t viii 478
Honduras pr v 349
Honfleur t viii 466
Hontse Hoo l ii 557
Hoobly t iii 173
Hoogly pr iii 111
Horn i iii 627
Horn t vii 306
Hornoesand t viii 545
Hostimuri t v 330
Hot Wells viii 696
Hou quang pr ii 583
Houssa t iv 255
Hoyle t viii 692
Hradisch t vii 475
Huddersfield t viii 724
Hudson r v 159
Hudson's Bay v 79
Huanco t v 428
Huasaculaco r v 282
Huazteca pr v 319
Huen i viii 539
Huelva t viii 109
Huescar t viii 118
Huesca t viii 78
Huete t viii 89
Hull t viii 730
Humantz i vii 110
Humber r viii 680
Huningue t viii 395
Hungary pr vi 278

Huntingdon t viii 737
Huntingdonshire viii 737
Hunse r viii 640
Hurdwar t iii 91
Hurlian t ii 377
Huron l v 115
Huszt t vi 313
Hydrabad pr iii 156
Hydrabad t iii 56
Hydra i vi 169
Hyeres i viii 173
Hyeres t viii 204
Hythe t viii 701

Iaca t viii 78
Iaszberemy t vi 323
Iazygia pr vi 323
Iblannoi m ii 392
Ibrim t iv 117
Iceland i v 98
Iconium t ii 76
Icononzo r v 398
Ida m ii 67
Iekaterinoslav t vi 384
Ieletz t vi 566
Ielisawetgrad t vi 384
Iernis t viii 785
Iesso pr ii 512
Igualada t viii 80
Ieuzgatt t ii 78
Igel r vii 251
Iglau t vii 479
Ila t viii 767
Ilerian m viii 3
Ill r viii 168
Ille et Vilaine dep viii 300
Illinois st v 202
Illimani m v 431
Illyria pr vii 527
Imandra l v 458
Imeritia pr ii 32
Inchboli t v 74
Ingolstadt t vii 389
Ingria pr vi 503
Ingrowitz t vii 480
Indersk l ii 367
India iii 1
India, Chin iii 330
Indies, West v 567
Indiana st v 202
Indore t iii 78
Indostan pr iii 1
Indre t viii 332
Indre et Loire dep viii 309
Indus r iii 13
Inhambane pr iv 396
Inn r vii 42
Innspruck t vii 517
Inst t vii 517
Instersburg t vii 20
Inverary t viii 767
Inverness t viii 768
Ionian Republic vi 173
Iotun Heim t vi 450
Irak Adjemi pr ii 246
Ireland i viii 684, 772
Irkootsk pr ii 440
Irkootsk t ii 440
Iris r ii 68
Irtysch r ii 395
Iser r vii 42
Isere r viii 166
Isere dep viii 215
Iserlohn t vii 227
Isigny t viii 464
Iskorest t vi 568
Islamabad t iii 122
Isnikmid t ii 74
Isnik t ii 74
Ispahan t ii 246
Ispir t ii 104
Isparte t ii 80
Ista t vi 424
Istib t vi 158
Issim r ii 396
Issoudun t viii 333
Issoire t viii 346
Issus t ii 79
Italy vii 585
Ithaca i vi 172
Itiapaba m v 510
Itzehoe t viii 595
Iung Bunzlau t vii 464
Ivica i viii 119
Iviza t viii 119
Ivory coast iv iv 230
Ivoy le Pré t viii 330

Jabalon r viii 8
Jacobstadt t vi 522
Jackson pt iii 538
Jaen pr viii 104
Jaffa t ii 149
Jaffnapatam t iii 245
Jaghire pr iii 184
Jaicza t vi 212
Jallonkadoo pr iv 220
Jamaica i v 579
Jamby t iii 442
James r v 159
Jamestown, St Helena iv 461
Janina t vi 180
Janish l ii 13
Japan Empire ii 518
Japan Sea ii 506
Jarama r viii 7
Jarnac t viii 276
Jarthe pr viii 167
Jaroslaw pr Rus vi 556
Jaroslaw t Poland vi 687
Jassy t vi 245
Java i iii 445
Jean de Losne t viii 373
Jedburgh t viii 755
Jedo cit ii 525
Jedo Gawa r ii 519
Jekil Irmak r ii 68
Jemappe t viii 624
Jena t vii 281
Jenidsche t vi 159
Jeni Bazar t vi 216
Jericho t ii 154
Jersey i viii 678, 691
Jersey, New st v 181
Jerusalem t ii 152
Jesselmere pr iii 73
Jessore pr iii 111
Jeypoor pr iii 74
Jocatra pr iii 453
Joenkoeping t viii 552
Joanna i iv 421
John de Mayen i v 108
Joigny t viii 378
Joinville t viii 417
Joodpoor pr iii 73
Jordan l vii 205
Jordan r ii 129
Jouzac t viii 277
Juan Lisboa i iv 450
Juan de Fernandez i v 453
Jubo pr iv 406
Jucar r viii 11
Judea pr ii 149
Judenburg t vii 523
Juilly t viii 433
Jujui t v 455
Juliers pr vii 229
Jullers t vii 244
Junquera t viii 79
Junkseylon i iii 353
Jumna r iii 123
Jura dep viii 384
Jura i viii 767
Jutland pr viii 569
Jutwar pr iii 66
Jylum r iii 16

Kaagoo r iv 255
Kaarta pr iv 251
Kabra t iv 254
Kabyls pr iv 168
Kabane t iv 221
Kainsk pr ii 437
Kais i ii 275
Kaisarieh t ii 78
Kaiserslautern t vii 403
Kalbe t vii 132
Kalisch t vi 667
Kaluga pr vi 564
Kaluga t vi 565
Kamaran i ii 217
Kambing i iii 523
Kaminik t vi 578
Kamnitz t vii 465
Kamtchatka pr ii 446
Kandehar t ii 345
Kandelle l iii 260
Kandy pr iii 256
Kanem pr iv 263
Kangaragay pr ii 474
Kangari t vi 440
Kanischa t vii 335
Kansas r v 206
Kantcheou pr ii 587
Kanoje t iii 85
Kantel m ii 619

Kaoyenhoo l ii 557
Karabooroom t ii 85
Kara Djiolam pr ii 108
Kara Osman pr ii 76
Kara Hissar t ii 76
Karaia pr ii 471
Karak Moab t ii 147
Karakum des ii 235
Karakorum t ii 485
Karasou r ii 78
Karazuzkie l ii 13
Karchan t vii 311
Karek t ii 274
Karg Algdym l ii 398
Kargapol t vi 454
Kargowa t vii 31
Karlstadt t vii 397
Karna pr iv 262
Karroos pr iv 341
Kars t ii 104
Kartueli pr ii 32
Karwar t iii 203
Kasbin t ii 255
Kashan t ii 253
Kaschin t vi 549
Kasimow t vi 562
Kashna pr iv 255
Kaskaskias r v 202
Kastamouni pr ii 73
Katiff t ii 210
Katonie l ii 113
Katrine l viii 767
Kattegat str vi 6
Kaushgar pr ii 640
Kawschani t vii 370
Kazan pr vi 430
Kazan t vi 431
Keft t iv 83
Kelso t viii 755
Kemi r vi 457
Kempen t vii 234
Kempten t vii 400
Kendal t viii 729
Kennebec r v 159
Kent sh viii 701
Kenty t vi 685
Kenteisse m ii 5
Kentucky st v 199
Kerasounte t ii 72
Kerguelen's Land i iv 456
Kerman l ii 275
Kermanshah t ii 255
Kerry t viii 785
Kerka r vii 334
Kertsh t vi 392
Kerryeray t viii 766
Kespin t ii 135
Kesrouan pr ii 141
Kestheli t vii 325
Ket t ii 377
Ketskemet t vii 320
Kew t viii 712
Khaboor r ii 112
Khanoos t ii 104
Khargeh t iv 256
Khandesh pr iii 154
Kharkof t vi 576
Kheibar pr ii 204
Kherson t vii 384
Khiwa t ii 376
Kholmogory t vi 450
Khomda t ii 275
Khorasan pr ii 277
Khotim t vii 378
Khowaresm t ii 373
Khoy t ii 255
Khuristan t ii 265
Kiækta t ii 441
Kiang Nang pr ii 573
Kiang Si pr ii 583
Kidderminster t viii 740
Kiel t viii 593
Kiew t vi 574
Kieydani l vi 604
Kigiesch t vii 378
Kilan pr ii 379
Kildare t viii 785
Kilkenny t viii 785
Killaloe t viii 785
Killarney l viii 685
Killarney t viii 785
Kimoli i vi 169
Kimpul Severinulici t vii 241
Kimpolung t vii 240
Kimpina t vii 240
Kincardine sh viii 764
Kinsale t viii 787
King te tching t ii 583

Kingston, Jam. v 581
Kingston, Can. v 126
Kingston, St Vin. v 595
Kin tcheou fou t ii 583
Kinross t viii 763
Kioun tcheou fou t ii 582
Kirensk pr ii 440
Kirk Agatch t ii 84
Kirkcudbright t viii 748
Kirkir nor l ii 14
Kirkwall t viii 770
Kirshehr t ii 77
Kischenau t vii 378
Kishmis i ii 275
Kisil Irmak r ii 68
Kishena pr iv 263
Kisliar t ii 45
Kistendel t vi 157
Kistetia pr ii 52
Kitzingen t vii 395
Kinsiu i ii 527
Kizil Ozen r ii 237
Klagenfurth t vii 532
Klausthal t vii 215
Kliasma r vi 554
Kloster Neuborg t vii 504
Knightley t viii 739
Knapdale pr viii 767
Kobi desert ii 6
Kodiak i v 56
Kœniggreitz t vii 465
Kœnigsberg t vii 19
Kœnigstein ft vii 278
Koeit cheou pr ii 588
Koei yang fou t ii 588
Koerfeld t vii 225
Kœthen t vii 315
Koevorden t viii 645
Kohistan pr ii 278
Koiran m ii 619
Kokura t ii 527
Koloeza t vii 320
Kolomna t vi 553
Kolywan pr ii 437
Kom t ii 253
Komis pr ii 278
Komorn t vii 307
Koneit t ii 210
Konieh t ii 76
Koollah r iv 260
Koomah r ii 43
Koordistan pr ii 107
Koorgan pr ii 434
Kooskooskee r v 64
Koosma t ii 216
Kordofan pr iv 259
Korotscha t vi 567
Koslow t vi 392, 561
Kosmodemiansk t vi 431
Kosogol l ii 484
Kostroma pr vi 556
Kostroma t vi 557
Kotah pr iii 74
Kotan pr ii 471
Kotkoo pr iv 263
Kouba t ii 59
Koumo r vi 480
Kousistan t ii 266
Kowaik r ii 134
Kowno t vi 611
Kozelsk t vi 565
Krainburg t vii 533
Krasnoiarsk pr ii 439
Krasno Slobodsk t vi 560
Krayowa t vii 240
Krementchuk t vi 577
Kremnitz t vii 308
Krems t vii 506
Kremsier t vii 480
Kreuz t vii 331
Krishna r iii 23
Kronstadt t vii 342
Kroaman r iv 340
Krosno t vi 685
Krostochin t vii 32
Kruchevacz t vi 219
Kuban r ii 43
Kufa t ii 120
Kulmbach t vii 391
Kumaoon pr iii 127
Kuopio pr vi 486
Kur r ii 60
Kurile islands ii 517
Kursk pr vi 566
Kursk t vi 567
Kutaieh t ii 76
Kuttno t vi 667
Kutznesk pr ii 439

Kymmene r	vi	480
Kyræ t	ii	485
Laache l	vii	248
Laaland i	viii	590
Labrador pr	v	84
Laccadive i	iii	260
La Charité t	viii	395
La Chatre t	viii	334
La Combelle t	viii	347
Ladoga l	vi	503
La Fere t	viii	431
La Fleche t	viii	308
La Ferté Milon t	viii	432
La Ferté sous Jouarie t	viii	433
Lagan r	viii	781
Lagoa bay	iv	386
Lagos t	viii	48
La Guayra t	v	384
La Haye Descartes t	viii	313
Lahore pr	iii	46
Lahore cit	iii	51
Lahr t	vii	352
Lahsa t	ii	210
Laires t	viii	769
La Kiang r	ii	556
La Mancha pr	viii	99
Lambay r	viii	11
Lamego t	viii	46
Lampoon pr	iii	440
Lamlask t	viii	766
Lac Tho pr	iii	363
Lamo pr	iv	406
Lanark t	viii	760
Lancashire	viii	730
Lancaster t	viii	731
Lancerota i	iv	468
Landes dep	viii	252
Landernau t	viii	298
Landau t	vii	403
Landscrone m	vii	82
Landshut t	vii	384
Landsberg t	vii	105
Landsitz t	vi	307
Landrecy t	viii	475
Langeais t	viii	313
Langeland i	viii	590
Lange Kloof t	iv	343
Langensalza t	vii	130
Langogne t	viii	230
Langoor m	ii	619
Langen t	viii	255
Langres t	viii	416
Lannion t	viii	299
Lant Shang t	iii	365
Lanzerte t	viii	264
Laodicea t	ii	82
Laon t	viii	431
Laos pr	iii	364
La Paz t	v	431
La Purificacion t	v	333
La Palisse t	viii	327
Lapland pr	vi	455
Lar t	ii	273
La Prevalaye t	viii	304
La Reole t	viii	258
Larissa t	vi	160
Larnica t	ii	88
Larrons i	ii	581
Las Palmas cape	iv	469
Latakié t	ii	136
Latakoo t	iv	387
Latmian gulf	ii	81
Landeac t	viii	299
Land's End	viii	678
Lauenburg pr	viii	599
Lauenburg t	viii	599
Launceston t	viii	692
Laurence Waltham t	viii	703
Lauricocha l	v	357
Lauricocha r	v	357
Lausanne t	vii	577
Laval t	viii	304
Lavaux t	viii	239
La Vega, Cuba t	v	579
La Vega, Hispan t	v	584
La Vendee pr	viii	279
Lay r	viii	279
Laybach t	vii	533
Lea r	viii	786
Lectoure t	viii	262
Lech r	vii	42
Lecce t	vii	719
Leewarden t	viii	645
Leeds t	viii	724
Leghorn t	vii	667
Lee r	viii	786
Leicester t	viii	735

Leicestershire viii 735
Leinster pr viii 780
Leipsick t vii 276
Leiria t viii 45
Leith t viii 761
Leitmeritz t vii 465
Lemberg t vi 783
Lemgo t vii 306
Leoben t vii 523
Lemnos i vi 170
Lena r ii 397
Lentschau t vi 311
Leon, Sp pr viii 72
Leon t viii 72
Leon New pr v 331
Leon, Am t v 352
Lerida t viii 80
Lerins i viii 173
Lero i ii 87
Lerwick t viii 771
Lesbos i ii 85
Lesina i vi 336
Leucadia i vi 172
Levroux t viii 333
Lewes t viii 700
Lewin's i iii 559
Lewis's river v 64
Leyden t viii 656
Liampo t ii 575
Liancourt t viii 439
Libanus m ii 127, 139
Libau t vi 522
Libourne t viii 258
Liechtenstein pr vii 358
Liege t viii 634
Liegnitz t vii 80
Lille t viii 477
Lillebonne t viii 467
Lima t v 424
Limasol t ii 88
Limerick t viii 785
Limburg, Ger t vii 228
Limburg, Belg t viii 634
Limoges t viii 335
Limoux t viii 243
Lincoln t viii 721
Lincolnshire viii 720
Lindau t vii 400
Lindou t vii 103
Linkoeping t viii 552
Linlithgow t viii 760
Linnhe l viii 749
Lintz t vii 507
Lions, Gulf of viii 172
Lipari i vii 750
Lipari t vii 750
Lippa t vii 465
Lippe r vii 44
Lippe Detmold pr vii 304
Lippe Schauenburg pr vii 307
Lippstadt t vii 306
Lisbon cit viii 42
Lisburn t viii 781
Lisieux t viii 466
Lissa t vii 31
Lissa i vi 336
Lithuania pr vi 599
Litchfield t viii 739
Liverpool, Eng cit viii 732
Liverpool, N S W t iii 540
Livno t vi 207
Livonia pr vi 519
Llandaff t viii 745
Llanelly t viii 746
Llerena t viii 103
Locarno t vii 579
Loanda San Paolo t iv 316
Loango pr iv 308
Loch Lomond viii 767
Loches t viii 314
Lodere t viii 234
Lodi t vii 625
Lodomiria pr vi 675
Lofoden i viii 534
Loheia pr ii 217
Loire r viii 167
Loire dep viii 358
Loire et Cherente dep viii 276
Loiret dep viii 319
Lokeren t viii 619
Lombers t viii 239
Lombes t viii 262
Lombok i viii 525
Lomond l viii 681
Long kiang fou t ii 574
Long Meg viii 728
Long ngan fou t ii 587

Longwy t	viii	403
London cit	viii	703
Londonderry t	viii	780
Lons le Saulnier t	viii	388
Loo Choó i	ii	541
Looristan pr	ii	265
Loos t	viii	478
Lop l	ii	14
Lop t	ii	476
Lorca t	viii	118
Loreto, Calif t	v	324
Loretto, Italy t	vii	692
Lorient t	viii	293
Lot r	viii	166
Lot dep	viii	268
Lot et Garonne dep	viii	255
Lothian pr	viii	756
Lough Earn	viii	685
Lough Foyle	viii	780
Lough Neagh	viii	781
Lougen r	viii	523
Loudun t	viii	284
Louisbourg t	v	139
Louisiade i	iii	602
Louisiana st	v	196
Louth pr	viii	784
Louvain t	viii	631
Louviers t	viii	458
Louvok t	iii	385
Lovisa t	vi	487
Lowashan t	iii	350
Lowicz t	vi	667
Lower Alps dep	viii	205
Lower Charente dep	viii	276
Lower Loire dep	viii	288
Lower Pyrenees dep	viii	249
Lower Rhine dep	viii	396
Lower Seine dep	viii	467
Lowlands Scotch	viii	764
Loyne r	viii	731
Lozere t	viii	229
Lubalo t	iv	317
Lubeck pr	vii	196
Lubeck t	viii	427
Lublin t	vi	669
Luc t	viii	230
Lucania pr	viii	697
Lucayos i	v	587
Lucca pr	vii	658
Lucca t	vii	658
Lucena t	viii	105
Lucerne canton	vii	573
Lucerne t	vii	573
Lucerne l	vii	573
Lucerno l	vii	597
Lucknow cit	iii	93
Lucon t	viii	280
Ludamar pr	iii	250
Lugano t	viii	579
Lugo t	viii	71
Ludwigsburg t	vii	336
Lummelund r	viii	539
Lund t	viii	553
Lunel t	viii	236
Lunenburgh t	vii	216
Luneville t	viii	412
Lupata m	iv	374
Lusitanian m	viii	4
Luttemberg t	vii	525
Lulea r	viii	538
Lulea t	viii	543
Lutzen t	vii	125
Luxemburg Dutchy	viii	365
Luxemburg t	viii	365
Luxueil t	viii	381
Luxuri t	vi	172
Luynes t	viii	113
Luzon i	iii	488
Lycaonia pr	ii	77
Lycia pr	ii	80
Lydia pr	ii	76
Lynn Regis t	viii	720
Lyons cit	viii	362
Maas r	viii	610
Maaseyk t	viii	633
Mabog t	ii	134
Macao i	ii	580
Macas pr	v	405
Macassar pr	iii	496
Macassar t	iii	496
Macedonia pr	vi	153
Mackenzie's r	v	74
Macherry pr	iii	86
Macquarrie t	iii	542
Madagascar i	iv	425
Machynleth t	viii	746
Madeira i	iv	478

Madeira r v 358
Madragora t viii 78
Madras cit iii 177
Madrid cit viii 89
Madura pr iii 188
Mælar l viii 538
Maestricht t viii 632
Magadoxa t iv 407
Magdalena r v 397
Magdeburg t vii 133
Magellan str v 480
Magnisa t ii 84
Maguer t viii 109
Mahagampattoe pr iii 253
Mahabalipuram t iii 185
Mahe t iii 209
Mahe i iv 420
Mahon pr viii 122
Mahon t viii 118
Mahrah t ii 212
Maillebois t viii 317
Maimatskin t ii 485
Maine r vii 44
Maine st v 172
Maine et Loire dep viii 285
Mainland i viii 769, 771
Maintenon t viii 317
Majorca i viii 121
Makian i iii 512
Malabar pr iii 205
Malacca pr iii 389
Malacca t iii 392
Malaga t viii 114
Malalareen r iv 340
Malatiah r ii 79
Malaya pr iii 389
Malden t v 127
Maldives i iii 261
Maldonado t v 462
Malines t viii 617
Mallicolo i iii 593
Malmoe t viii 553
Malmesbury t viii 698
Malo St t viii 301
Malstroem viii 534
Malwa pr iii 76
Mampoor pr iv 395
Mamai t ii 42
Mananzari r iv 426
Manangara r iv 426
Man i viii 679, 683, 729
Mamers t viii 306
Manche dep viii 461
Manchester cit viii 731
Mandingo pr iv 219
Mangalore pr iii 204
Manheim t vii 348
Manilla t iii 488
Manitsh r ii 43
Manresa t viii 81
Mans t viii 306
Manselar m iii 427
Mantchoo pr ii 492
Mantchooria pr ii 489
Mantes t viii 430
Mantua cit vii 626
Manzanares r viii 95
Maoona i iii 628
Maracaybo l v 382
Maracaybo t v 385
Maraga t ii 258
Maranham t v 543
Maranon r v 357
Maravi l iv 412
Marbella t viii 113
Marburg t vii 295
Marcella m v 510
Mareb ii 215
Maremma pr vii 659
Maremmes t viii 277
Margarita i v 385
Marian i iii 617
Mariana t viii 202
Mariana t Am v 539
Marianic m viii 4
Maria Taferl t vii 506
Maribæe t viii 590
Marie Galante i v 593
Marienburg t vii 23
Marienburg l vii 517
Marienwerder t vii 24
Marli t viii 442
Marmande t viii 260
Marmora Sea vi 122
Marne r viii 168
Marne dep viii 421
Maroni r v 554
Marquesas i iii 640

Marsala t vii 742
Marseilles t viii 208
Martha Santa t v 402
Martinico i v 593
Martouan t ii 135
Marvejols t viii 230
Maryland st v 189
Masafuero i v 453
Masaya m v 352
Mascara pr iv 184
Mascarenhas i iv 443
Massa pr vii 657
Massa t vii 657
Massachusetts st v 174
Massua t iv 150
Masulipatam pr iii 153
Matamba pr iv 318
Matanzas t v 579
Matachel r viii 8
Mataram pr iii 455
Mataro t viii 82
Mathura t iii 84
Matsumai i ii 512
Matto Grosso pr v 544
Mutuia pr iii 251
Maubeuge t viii 475
Maule pr v 452
Mauleon t viii 251
Maurs t viii 340
Mauze t viii 282
Mayence t vii 303
Mayenne r viii 167
Mayenne t viii 305
Mayenne dep viii 304
Maynas pr v 405
Mayon m iii 483
Mazagan t iv 190
Mazanderan pr ii 264
Meander r ii 68
Meaux t viii 433
Mecca cit ii 202
Mechoacan pr v 333
Mecklenburg pr vii 181
Medina Sidonia t viii 112
Medina t ii 202
Medinblick t viii 649
Mediterranean Sea vi 8
Medway r viii 702
Megalo chori t ii 86
Mehun t viii 332
Mei Kong r iii 333
Meinam r iii 382
Meinder r ii 68
Meissenheim t vii 297
Mekran pr ii 276
Melas r ii 78
Melasso t ii 82
Melinda t iv 407
Melitena r ii 79
Mellincourt t viii 745
Melrose t viii 755
Melun t viii 434
Melville i v 90
Memmingen t vii 400
Menankaboo pr iii 439
Mende t viii 229
Mendoza t v 454
Menzaleh l iv 32
Mequinez t iv 189
Merakash t iv 190
Merasche t ii 79
Mergui i iii 353
Merida Sp t viii 101
Merida Am t v 385
Merionethshire viii 744
Merrimack r v 159
Merseburg t vii 125
Mersey r viii 732
Meseritz t vii 31
Meshed t ii 278
Meshieh t iv 81
Mesopotamia pr ii 98, 111
Messina t vii 732
Metelin i ii 85
Metz t viii 403
Mendon t viii 443
Meulan t viii 441
Meurs t vii 233
Meurthe dep viii 411
Meuse r viii 168
Meuse dep viii 406
Mexico pr v 265
Mexico cit v 335
Mexico New pr v 325
Mezen r vi 444
Mezen t vi 450
Mezieres t viii 428
Mezzana pr vii 741

Michael St i	iv	484
Michigan l	v	115
Michigan ter	v	204
Miconi i	vi	170
Middleburg t	viii	662
Middleburg i	iii	627
Middlesex pr	viii	703
Midnapoo pr	iii	112
Miedniki t	vi	604
Milan cit	vii	618
Milford Haven t	viii	746
Milhau t	viii	268
Milo i	vi	169
Miras Geraes pr	v	537
Mindanao i	iii	491
Minden t	vii	223
Mindoro i	iii	490
Mingrelia pr	ii	32
Minho r	viii	11
Minorca t	viii	122
Minsk t	vi	616
Minere l	iii	259
Mioesen l	viii	524
Miranda t	viii	47
Mirandola t	vii	658
Mirande t	viii	262
Mirecourt t	viii	409
Mirepoix t	viii	246
Miskoles t	vi	312
Mississippi r	v	156
Mississippi st	v	196
Missouri st	v	203
Mitla t	v	344
Mitrowitz t	vi	334
Mittau t	vi	522
Mixoal i	iii	512
Mnasek t	ii	216
Mobba pr	iv	260
Modena pr	vii	656
Modena cit	vii	656
Mœen i	viii	590
Mœris l	iv	31
Mœtling t	vii	533
Moffat t	viii	749
Mogadore t	iv	190
Mogelew l	vi	578
Mohacz t	vi	325
Mohilew t	vi	615
Moirmoutiers t	viii	280
Moissac t	viii	264
Moka t	ii	217
Mokko pr	iv	337
Mokscha r	vi	560
Moldau r	vii	441
Moldavia pr	vi	241
Moldavia Rus. pr	vi	378
Moldawa r	vii	46
Molucca i	iii	514
Mombaza t	iv	407
Monaco pr	vii	648
Monaslir t	vi	153
Monchique t	viii	48
Monchaboo t	iii	349
Mondonedo t	viii	71
Mondego r	viii	11
Monfia i	iv	405
Mönghir t	iii	101
Mongolia pr	ii	485
Mondova t	v	331
Monmouth t	viii	742
Monmouthshire	viii	742
Monomotapa pr	iv	397
Mons t	viii	625
Monsol t	iv	336
Montagna t	ii	75
Montargis t	viii	322
Montataire t	viii	437
Montauban t	viii	265
Montbard t	viii	375
Mont Blanc	vii	558
Montbrison t	viii	360
Mont Cenis	vii	642
Mont d'Or t	viii	345
Mont Lucon t	viii	327
Montmirail t	viii	422
Montdidier t	viii	471
Mont de Marsan t	viii	253
Montelimart t	viii	213
Montenegro pr	vi	204
Montereau t	viii	435
Monterey t	v	331
Monte Video	v	461
Montezuma r	v	282
Montfort l'Amaury t	viii	446
Montfort sur Meu t	viii	302
Montgomery t	viii	745
Montgomeryshire	viii	744
Montilla t	viii	105

Montmedi t viii 407
Montreal t v 124
Montreale t vii 743
Montreuil t viii 472
Montrose t viii 764
Montpelier t viii 235
Montserrat m viii 80
Montserrat i v 591
Monza t vii 624
Mooltan pr iii 55
Mookden t ii 492
Moorshedabad t iii 113
Morat l vii 576
Moravia pr vii 469
Morawa r vii 42
Morbihan dep viii 291
Morea pr vi 162
Morecambe bay viii 679
Morlaix t viii 298
Morocco pr iv 186
Mortagne t viii 460
Mortain t viii 461
Mortay i iii 511
Morter i vi 335
Morung pr iii 133
Moscow pr vi 549
Moscow cit vi 549
Mosdok t ii 45
Moselle r vii 44
Moselle dep viii 401
Mossart m ii 6
Moshaisk t vi 553
Mostar t vi 207
Mosul t ii 112
Motur i iii 512
Moulins t viii 325
Mount Rose vii 558
Mourg Aub t ii 271
Mourmoutiers i viii 173
Mouroundava r iv 437
Mozambique pr iv 400
Mstislawl t vi 615
Mulgrave i iii 622
Mulhausen t viii 395
Mull i viii 679
Multnomah r v 64
Munden t vii 215
Munich t vii 381
Munipoor pr iii 140
Munkatsch t vi 312
Munster t vii 224
Munster pr viii 780
Muonio r vii 457, 537
Mur r vii 519
Murat t viii 342
Murcia pr viii 118
Muret t viii 241
Murray frith viii 679
Murom t vi 555
Murundava r iv 426
Murwanpoor pr iii 132
Muscat t ii 211
Mustag m ii 85
Mylash t ii 82
Mymunsingh pr ii 118
Myra t ii 80
Mygdonia pr ii 113
Mysia pr ii 76
Mysore pr iii 194
Mysore cit iii 199
Mzcheti t ii 35

Nablous t ii 149
Nagpoor t iii 145
Nagy Banya t vi 313
Nagy Karoly t vi 313
Nagy Kæræes t vi 320
Nakshi Roostam m ii 271
Namsen r viii 523
Namur t viii 626
Nancy t viii 413
Nanking cit ii 573
Nanphi i vi 168
Nan tchang fou cit ii 583
Nantes t viii 289
Nantua t viii 370
Nantwich t viii 733
Naoon t ii 485
Naples kingd vii 694
Naples cit vii 705
Napo r v 357
Napoli di Romania t vi 162
Napoli de Malvoisia t vi 462
Narbonne t viii 243
Nassau Dutchy vii 320
Nassau i iii 444
Natal pr iv 374
Naumburg t vii 123

Navarino t vi 163
Navarre pr viii 67
Naxos i vi 168
Nazareth t ii 148
Neagh l viii 685
Neath t viii 745
Nedjed t ii 204
Nedjeran pr ii 216
Neembuco t v 461
Negapatam t iii 187
Negro r v 358
Negropont i vi 170
Negumbo t iii 247
Nellore pr iii 180
Nemet Gyula t vi 317
Nemours t viii 434
Neo Planta t vi 321
Nepal pr iii 128
Nerac t viii 261
Nerbuddah iii 23
Nershink m ii 7
Nertschinsk m ii 442
Netherlands pr viii 605
Neubourg t vii 399
Neuchatel t ii 258
Neuf Brisach t viii 396
Neufchateau t viii 409
Neuse r v 159
Neuss t ii 234
Neustadt t vii 504
Neuwied t ii 246
Neva r vi 502
Nevers t viii 324
Nevis i v 591
New Albion pr v 321
Neway t viii 781
New Arad t vi 317
New Barcelona t v 385
New Biscay pr v 330
Newburyport t v 175
New Brunswick pr v 135
New Britain pr iii 603
New Brandenburg t ii 187
New Caledonia iii 587
New California pr v 322
Newcastle, Eng. t viii 727
Newcastle, N. S. W. t iii 541
New Cornwall pr v 67
New Georgia pr v 62
New Guinea i iii 606
New Hebrides i iii 589
New Hanover i iii 605
New Hanover pr v 62
New Holland i iii 528
New Hampshire st v 172
New Haven t v 177
New Leon pr v 331
New Jersey st v 181
New Mexico pr v 325
New Norfolk pr v 62
New Navarre pr v 330
New Orleans cit v 198
Newport Pagnell t viii 738
New-York st v 177
New-York cit v 179
New St Andero pr v 332
New Shamachia t ii 59
New Siberia i ii 444
New Stettin t ii 117
New South Wales pr ii 528
New South Shetland i v 483
New Spain pr v 268
New Zealand i iii 572
Newfoundland i v 140
Newmarket t viii 718
Niagara r v 116
Niamtsch t vi 244
Nicæa t ii 75
Nicaragua l v 351
Nicaragua pr v 351
Nice pr viii 203
Nice t viii 648
Nicaria i ii 86
Nicobar i iii 361
Nicolsburg t vii 478
Nicomedia t ii 74
Nicosia t ii 88
Nieusiedel l vi 286
Nieusiedel t vi 325
Niger r iv 240
Nigritia pr iv 240
Niemen r vi 652
Nikidé t ii 77
Nikioebing t viii 590
Nile r iv 19
Nimeguen t viii 646
Nimes t viii 232
Niort t viii 282

Niphates m ii 99
Niphon i ii 518
Nishaboor t ii 278
Nisibis t ii 113
Nivelles t viii 627
Nœrdlingen t vii 396
Nogent le Roi t viii 417
Nogent le Rotrou t viii 316
Nogent sur Seine t viii 421
Nolay t viii 372
Nootka i v 65
Nord dep viii 474
Nordhausen t ii 129
Nordstrand i viii 592
Norfolk county viii 719
Norfolk, New pr v 62
Norte Rio del r v 327
Norte Rio Bravo del r v 282
Northampton t viii 737
North Carolina st v 192
North West Territory v 205
Northumberland sh viii 725
Norway pr viii 510
Norwich t viii 720
Nosen t vi 342
Nottingham t viii 735
Nottinghamshire viii 735
Noutron t viii 472
Nouvion en Tierarche t viii 430
Noyon t viii 438
Nova Berda t vi 220
Nova Scotia pr v 136
Nova Zembla i ii 392, 394
Novi Bazar t vi 216
Novita pr v 392
Novgorod pr vi 543
Novgorod t vi 543
Nubia pr iv 115
Nuddea pr iii 112
Nuevas Poblaciones t viii 103
Nuremberg t t vii 394
Nuyt's Land iii 557
Nyas i iii 444
Nykoeping t viii 552
Nyon t vii 576
Nyons t viii 213

Oakham t viii 736
Oases iv 94
Oaxaca pr v 344
Obdoria pr ii 433
Oby i iii 512
Obi r ii 396
Obra r vii 28
Ochrida l vi 185
Occa r vi 554
Oczakof t vi 384
Oceanica iii 395
Ochus r ii 237
Odensee t viii 590
Oder r vii 46
Odessa t vi 384
Odeypoor pr iii 75
Odiel r viii 109
Oedenburg t vi 324
Oeiras t viii 45
Oeland i viii 539
Oels t vii 78
Oerebro t viii 551
Oesel i vi 523
Of t ii 72
Offenbach t vii 302
Offenburg t vii 352
Ofen t vi 305
Oginski canal vi 616
Ohio r v 157
Ohio st v 201
Ohlau t vii 79
Oise r viii 168
Oise dep viii 436
Oitz l ii 520
Oka r vi 566
Okhotsk pr ii 445
Olbai t vi 385
Oldenburg Gr Duchy vii 189
Oldenburg t vii 195
Olensk r ii 397
Oldesloke t viii 597
Old Castile pr viii 74
Olinda t v 542
Oleron i viii 173
Oleron t viii 251
Olmutz t vii 480
Olonetz pr vi 454
Olpe t vii 228
Oltis t viii 268
Olympus m Asia ii 67

Olympus m Cr ii 88
Oman pr ii 211
Omer St t viii 474
Omo m v 351
Omsk pr ii 436
Onega l vi 503
Onega r vi 445
Oneida l v 178
Ongole pr iii 180
Onondago l v 178
Onore t iii 203
Ontario l v 117
Oni t ii 37
Oomanek i v 55
Oonalaschka pr v 54
Oojein pr iii 77
Oojein t iii 78
Oorman m ii 391
Oormia t ii 358
Opatow t vi 669
Oppidola t vii 749
Oporto t viii 46
Orange t viii 212
Orashul t vi 240
Orcades i viii 683
Orchies t viii 477
Orel pr vi 565
Orel t vi 566
Orenburg pr vi 425
Orenburg t vi 426
Orensé t viii 71
Orfa t ii 112
Orhey t vi 378
Orihuela t viii 88
Orissa pr iii 147
Oristano t vii 650
Orkneys i viii 679, 683, 769
Orkup t vi 220
Orleans cit viii 319
Orleans New cit v 198
Ormuz i ii 275
Ornans t viii 393
Orne dep viii 459
Orne r viii 169
Orontes r ii 129
Oronoko r v 360
Oropesa t v 432
Oroshaza t vi 317
Ortegal cape viii 12
Orthez t viii 251
Orzik r vi 671
Osca t viii 78
Osero i vi 335
Osnabruck t vii 218
Ostaschkow t vi 548
Ostend t viii 622
Ostia t vii 689
Ossetia pr ii 50
Ostrobothnia pr vi 492
Ostrog t vi 580
Ostromeza t vi 517
Ost Vaagen i viii 534
Otaheite i iii 631
Otranto Terra di pr vii 718
Otranto t vii 719
Otter Peaks of m v 153
Ottawa r v 117
Oude pr iii 92
Oudenarde t viii 621
Ouessant i iii 173, 298
Oungiah r v 73
Oureg r viii 432
Ourem t viii 31
Ourique t viii 31
Ouse r viii 680
Oustioug Weliki t vi 448
Oustsysolsk t vi 449
Over Flakee i viii 641
Over Yssel pr viii 645
Oviedo t viii 70
Owal pr iv 217
Owasco l v 178
Oxford t viii 713
Oxfordshire viii 713
Oxus r ii 329
Owaihee i iii 643
Oyapok r v 554
Oyolava i iii 630
Ozark m v 152

Pactolus r ii 68
Padang t iii 439
Paderborn t vii 224
Padua cit vii 629
Pago i vi 335
Pahang t iii 392
Paimpont t viii 302
Paimbœuf t viii 291

Paisley t viii 762
Palcati l ii 474
Palawan i iii 490
Palembang pr iii 441
Palencia t viii 74
Palermo t vii 743
Palestine pr ii 120
Palet t viii 290
Palma i iv 472
Palma t viii 127
Palma i iii 420
Palmyra cit ii 135
Pamer pr ii 627
Pamiers t viii 246
Pamlico Sound v 159
Pampas pr v 474
Pampatar t v 385
Pampeluna t viii 67
Pamphylia pr ii 77
Panama t v 400
Panay i iii 490
Panuco r v 345
Paooam i iii 592
Paoting fou t ii 572
Papals pr iii 224
Papantla pr v 343
Paphlagonia pr ii 76
Paphos i ii 87
Para pr v 543
Paraguay pr v 456
Paraguay r v 359
Paramaribo t v 561
Paramatta t iii 539
Parana r v 357, 359
Parayba t v 542
Parenzo t vii 535
Parestan pr ii 627
Parga t vi 182
Parima l v 360
Paris cit viii 448
Parma Dutchy vii 653
Parma cit vii 653
Parnassus m vi 120, 161
Parnella pr iii 172
Paropamisus m ii 326
Paros i vi 169
Pasco t v 428
Pas de Calais dep viii 472
Parthenay t viii 282
Parthenius r ii 68
Passaman pr iii 438
Passau t vii 305
Pasto t v 402
Pastovich t vi 340
Passewalk t vii 115
Patagonia pr v 476
Patani pr iii 391
Patè pr iii 406
Patmos i ii 86
Patna t iii 99
Pau t viii 250
Paulowa t vii 559
Pausilippo t vii 713
Pavia t vii 624
Paxo i vi 172
Pay ho r ii 557
Payana l vii 480
Pedee r v 158
Peebles t viii 762
Pegu kingd iii 350
Pegu t iii 351
Pelpus l vii 517
Pekin cit ii 570
Pelew i iii 615
Peloponnesus vi 162
Pelym pr ii 434
Pelworn i viii 592
Pemba pr iii 313
Pemba i iii 406
Pembroke t viii 746
Pembrokeshire viii 743
Peniscola t viii 86
Penobscot r v 159
Pensacola t v 204
Pennsylvania st v 181
Pentallaria i vii 749
Pentland Frith viii 683
Penza pr vii 559
Penza t vii 559
Pera pr iii 93
Pera t vi 149
Pereslavl t vii 555
Perasto t vi 339
Pergamus t ii 84
Perigueux t viii 271
Peronne t viii 471
Perpignan t viii 244
Perm t vii 440

Pernambuco t v 542
Permia t vii 438
Pernau t vii 521
Perecop t vii 391
Persagno t vi 339
Persia kingd ii 227
Perthshire viii 767
Peru pr v 414
Perugia t vii 690
Perth t vi 320
Pe tche li pr ii 569
Petchora r vii 444
Peterborough t viii 737
Peterwarodin t ii 333
Petersburg cit vii 505
Petorca t v 451
Petrikow t vii 667
Petrosavodsk t vii 454
Pezenas t viii 237
Phalsburg t viii 411
Pharsala t vi 160
Philadelphia, Asia cit ii 84
Philadelphia, U S cit v 183
Philæ i iv 491
Philipecti t vi 240
Phocea t ii 84
Philippine i iii 483
Phakia t ii 84
Phorzheim t vii 351
Piacenza t vii 654
Pianhy pr v 543
Piatra t vi 244
Pichincha m v 406
Pico i iv 491
Piesern l vii 667
Pilsen t vii 465
Pimeria pr v 330
Pindus m vi 119
Piombino t vii 667
Piquet m iii 344
Pirano t vii 535
Pirmassenz t vii 403
Pisa t vii 661
Pisek t vii 465
Pisidia pr ii 77
Pistoja t vii 664
Pisuerga r viii 8
Pizzo t vii 721
Pitcairn's i iii 638
Pithiviers t viii 322
Pitons m iv 448
Pittsburg t v 186
Piura t v 426
Placentia t v 142
Plasencia t viii 100
Plassenburg t vii 391
Plassay t iii 112
Platte r v 206
Plauen t vii 277
Plelan le Grand t viii 302
Pleskow t vii 544
Plinlimmon m viii 680
Plombieres t viii 411
Ployesti t vi 240
Ploarmel t viii 294
Plock pr vii 670
Plock t vii 670
Plymouth t viii 694
Po r vii 587
Podgorza t vii 685
Podlochia pr vii 670
Podolia pr vii 578
Poganovo l vii 556
Poglitza pr vi 337
Pogost t vii 559
Poissy t viii 441
Poitiers t viii 283
Pola t vii 536
Poland kingd vii 648
Polesia pr vii 616
Poligny t viii 386
Polzen t vii 117
Pomerania pr vii 106
Pompeii t vii 711
Pompeipolis t vi 159
Pondicherry t iii 182
Ponferrada t viii 73
Ponoi r vii 458
Pont à Mousson t viii 414
Pontarlier t viii 390
Pont Audemer t viii 459
Ponte Corvo t vii 693
Pont de Cé t viii 287
Pont du Chateau t viii 348
Pont Gibaud t viii 353
Ponthiamas pr iii 382
Pontiay t viii 294
Pontoise t viii 440

Pont St Esprit t viii 231
Pont St Maxence t viii 437
Poolo Penang i iii 393
Poonah cit iii 167
Popayan pr v 392
Popayan t v 402
Porentruy t vii 572
Poretchi t vii 548
Port au Prince t v 585
Porta Westphalia m vii 39
Port Bourbon t iv 449
Portland t v 172
Portland i viii 695
Porto Bello t v 400
Porto Santo i iv 482
Porto Cavello t v 384
Porto Seguro t v 537
Port Royal, Jam t v 581
Port Louis t Fr viii 293
Port Louis t I Fr iv 448
Port Patrick t viii 748
Port Royal Mart v 594
Portsmouth Eng t viii 699
Portsmouth N H t v 173
Portugal viii 27
Port Vendre t viii 245
Posen Gr D vii 28
Posen t vii 30
Possega t vi 333
Potenza t vii 720
Potschinki t vii 559
Potomac r v 159
Potosi t v 432
Potsdam t vii 93
Pouancé t viii 286
Pouilly t viii 323
Pouliguen t viii 291
Pozzuoli t vii 713
Poyang hoo l ii 557
Poym pr ii 471
Pracels iii 380
Prague t vii 463
Prato t vii 668
Preetz t viii 594
Prentzlau vii 105
Prerau t vii 481
Prosna r vii 667
Prince Edward's i N S v 139
Prusa t ii 75
Prince i iv 462
Princeton t v 181
Presburg t vi 307
Presteigne t viii 746
Priangan pr iii 454
Privas t viii 225
Prussia kingd vii 1
Prome t iii 350
Propontis t ii 75
Providence t v 176
Provins t viii 435
Puerto Praya t iv 466
Puerto Rico t v 585
Puerto Espana t v 598
Punderpoor t iii 173
Puerto del Principe t v 579
Pultava t vii 576
Punjab pr iii 47
Przemysl t vii 687
Punta Delgada t iv 485
Pultusk t vii 671
Purbeck i vii 695
Pulawy t vii 669
Purneah pr iii 115
Putlam t iii 247
Puy t viii 227
Puy de Dome m viii 351
Puy de Dome dep viii 342
Puy de Saucy m viii 344
Puebla de los Angelos pr v 341
Purwz r v 357
Pyramus r ii 67
Pyrenees m vi 17
Pyrmont t vii 320

Quadra i v 62
Quang si pr ii 588
Quan tcheou fou cit ii 578
Quan ton pr ii 579
Quan tong cit ii 581
Quebec cit v 123
Quebradas pr v 366
Queda t iii 393
Quei ling fou t ii 589
Quelpaert i ii 498
Queretaro t v 340
Querimbe pr iv 402
Quesaltenango pr v 348

Quesnoy sur Deule tv iii 478
Quiberon i viii 292
Quilimancy r iv 407
Quillebœuf t viii 458
Quillota pr v 450
Quiloa t iv 404
Quimper t viii 295
Quimperlé t viii 295
Quindiu m v 366
Quintin t viii 294
Quipar r viii 11
Quirin St t viii 411
Quito cit v 404
Quixos pr v 405
Quoya pr iv 231
Quivira pr v 323

Raab t ii 324
Rabastaens t viii 248
Radjshaby pr iii 114
Radkersburg t vii 524
Radnor shire viii 744
Radnor t viii 746
Rudscha t ii 37
Ragusa pr ii 337
Ragusa t ii 338
Rajamundey pr iii 153
Rajemahl t iii 114
Rakow t vi 669
Ramberviller t viii 409
Rambouillet t viii 446
Ramisseram i iii 190
Ramsay t viii 729
Rance r viii 169
Randers t viii 591
Rangamotty t iii 117
Rangoon t iii 352
Raposo pr v 392
Rascia pr ii 216
Rastadt t vii 352
Ratisbon t vii 387
Ratzebourg t viii 599
Rattan i v 345
Ratskeve t ii 320
Raumo t vi 491
Ravenna t vii 691
Ravey r iii 17
Rawitz t vii 32
Re i viii 173
Reading t viii 712
Realejo t v 352
Redon t viii 302
Red Sea ii 189
Reikiavik t iv 105 152
Reims cit viii 425
Reinsberg t vii 103
Reichstadt t vii 465
Remiremont t viii 410
Rendsbourg t viii 594
Renfrew t viii 762
Rennes t viii 302
Reggio t Nap vii 722
Reggio t Mod vii 656
Reshd t ii 263
Rethel t viii 427
Reuss Spain t viii 85
Reuss Ger pr vii 309
Reuss Greitz pr viii 310
Reuss Lobenstein pr viii 311
Reuss Schleitz pr viii 310
Revel t vi 518
Rewary t iii 89
Rey t ii 254
Rhetymo t ii 167
Rhine r vii 42
Rhode Island st v 176
Rhodes i ii 87
Rhodez t viii 267
Rhodope m ii 119
Rhonaszek t ii 313
Rhone r viii 166
Rhone dep viii 361
Rhuys dep viii 292
Riæsan pr vi 561
Riæsan t vi 562
Riberac t viii 272
Ribeira Grande t iv 485
Richmond t U. S. v 191
Richmond Eng viii 712
Riesen Gebirge m vii 38
Riga t vi 520
Rimba pr iv 317
Rimini t vii 691
Rio Alvarado r v 282
Rio Atrato r v 404
Rio Bravo r v 282
Rio Colorodo r v 283
Rio de la Plata r v 359

Rio del Monte r viii 8
Rio de Montezuma r v 282
Rio Grande r iv 226
Rio Grande pr v 531
Rio de Zacatula r v 282
Rio Dolce r v 454
Rio Huasaculaco r v 282
Rio des Solimoens r v 358
Rio de Bogota r v 397
Rio Janeiro cit v 530
Riom t viii 354
Rio Mundo r viii 11
Rio Negro r v 358
Rio Noanama r v 403
Rio de la Summa Paz r v 398
Rio Salado r v 454
Rio San Juan r v 284
Ripe t viii 591
Rippon t viii 723
Ritzounda t ii 42
Rive de Gier t viii 358
Rize t ii 72
Rizano t ii 339
Rjaw Wladimirow t vi 549
Roanoke r v 159
Roanne t viii 360
Rochechouard t viii 336
Rochefort t viii 278
Rochelle t viii 278
Rochester t viii 702
Rockingham t viii 736
Rocky Mountains v 60
Roenne t viii 590
Roeskilde t viii 589
Rogozko t vii 30
Rohilcund pr iii 90
Rohitsch t vii 593
Rokasch pr ii 306
Romarantin t viii 315
Rome cit vii 674
Ronda t viii 113
Ronde i v 595
Rosenau t ii 311
Rosetta t iv 67
Rosienie t vi 604
Roskolniki t vi 440
Rosny t viii 440
Ross shire viii 769
Rossus m ii 120
Rostow t vi 556
Rota t viii 110
Rothenburg, Bav. t vii 395
Rothenburg, Sax. t vii 127
Rothesay t viii 766
Rotschensalm t vi 485
Rotterdam t viii 660
Rotterdam i iii 627
Rotti i iii 523
Roubaix t viii 478
Rouen cit viii 468
Rousniak pr vi 687
Rougemont t viii 694
Roveredo t vii 519
Rovigno t vii 536
Rozoy t viii 435
Roxburgh t viii 755
Ruad i ii 136
Rubieszow t vi 670
Rudolstadt t vii 308
Ruden i vii 110
Rudkioebing t viii 590
Ruel t viii 443
Rugen i vii 110
Ruhr t vii 44
Rungpoor t iii 116
Runsala i vi 490
Rum i viii 679
Russia, Emp. vi 377
Rust t ii 324
Ruttunpoor t iii 146
Rutland t viii 736
Rutlandshire viii 736
Rybensk t vi 557
Rzezow t vi 684

Saale r vii 46
Saalfeld t vii 286
Saardam t viii 650
Saba i v 590
Sabinus t viii 416
Sablé t viii 308
Sables d'Olonnes t viii 280
Saetz t vii 465
Sagonera r viii 11
Sagor i iii 109
Sagre t viii 48
Sahan pr ii 216
Saharunpoor t ii 91

Saima l vi 480
St Amand t Nor. viii 477
St Amand t Ch. viii 329
St Amour t viii 389
St Afrique t viii 268
St Andrews t viii 763
St Asaph t viii 747
St Austel t viii 692
St Aubin t viii 691
St Antonio i C. Verd iv 467
St Bertrand de Commin-
ges t viii 421
St Brieux t viii 299
St Bartholomew i v 589
St Brandon i iv 477
St Catherine i v 532
St Calais t viii 307
St Clair l v 115
St Claude t viii 390
St Cloud t viii 443
St Christopher i v 591
St Croix r v 159
St David t viii 746
St David's i iii 67
St Denis t Fr. viii 455
St Denis t Bourb. iv 445
St Die t viii 411
St Domingo cit v 584
St Etienne t viii 359
St Eustatia i v 590
St Florent t viii 202
St Flour t viii 341
St Francisco t v 332
St Gall canton vii 569
St Gaudens t viii 241
St George t Ber. v 143
St George i Az. iv 484
St Giles t viii 280
St Girons t viii 246
St Germain t viii 441
St Gobain t viii 431
St Helena t iv 460
St Helier t viii 691
St Hyppolyte t viii 394
St Hubert t viii 635
St Honarine t viii 457
St Ildefonso t viii 76
St Jago de Cuba t v 579
St Jago de Compostella t viii 70
St Joseph d'Oruna t v 598
St Juan, P. R. t v 586
St Julian t viii 337
St John i W. I. v 588
St John r Fl. v 158
St John t Nfd. v 142
St John i N. S. v 139
St John r N. B. v 135
St Liziers t viii 246
St Lo t viii 463
St Loup t viii 381
St Lucar de Barrameda t
viii 109
St Lucia i C. V. iv 467
St Lucia i W. I. v 594
St Lawrence r v 117
St Malo t viii 301
St Maria i iv 482
St Marguerite i viii 203
St Martin i v 589
St Marino t vii 669
St Matthew i iv 465
St Maurice t vii 579
St Menehould t viii 424
St Michael i iv 484
St Mihiel i viii 407
St Nicholas t viii 619
St Paul i iv 455
St Peter t v 594
St Pelter t vii 506
St Pierre t viii 692
St Pol de Leon t viii 298
St Pourçain t viii 327
St Quentin t viii 430
St Quirin t viii 411
St Salvador cit Braz. v 540
St Salvador Af. t iv 312
St Sebastian Sp. t viii 69
St Sebastian t Can. iv 472
St Sever t viii 253
St Thomas i Af. iv 460
St Thomas i W. I. v 588
St Tome t iii 184
St Trond t viii 632
St Tropez i viii 203
St Vincent i C. V. iv 467
St Vincent i W. I. v 594
St Wendel t vii 286
St Yriex t viii 337
Saintes t viii 227
Sakara r ii 68

Salamis t ii 88
Salcey t viii 736
Sakhara t iv 77
Salado r v 359
Salamis i vi 169
Salerno t vii 715
Salem t v 175
Salisbury t viii 698
Salonica t vi 156
Salines t viii 387
Salor r viii 8
Salsette i iii 160
Salum pr iv 221
Salayer i iii 503
Salta t v 455
Saltzburg t vi 311
Salwatty i iii 611
Salzburg t vii 509
Samana bay v 584
Samao i iii 523
Samar i iii 490
Samara t vi 430
Samaria pr ii 148
Samarcand pr ii 378
Sambor t vi 687
Sambre r viii 610
Samos i ii 86
Samsoun t ii 72
Samhar pr iv 150
Samnium t vii 695
Samogitia pr v 603
Samodraki i vi 171
San Blas t v 333
San Clementi t viii 89
Sancerre t viii 330
San Joao del Rey pr v 538
San Luis Potosi pr v 331
San Pedro del Rey t v 544
San Miguel el Grande t v 334
Sandi pr iv 314
San Germano t vii 702
Sandwich i iii 592
Sandys t viii 737
San Juan de los Llanos pr v 392
Sangarius r ii 68
Santa Barbara m v 429
Sanghir i iii 503
Sanga t ii 527
Santa Cruz i v 588
Santa Cruz de la Sierra pr v 392
Santa Martha pr v 392
Santa Martha t v 402
Santa Maura i vi 172
Sangor t iii 79
Santarem t viii 46
Santa Rosa t v 331
Sand t ii 215
Santander t viii 75
Santa Fé t v 326
Santa Fé de Bogota pr v 392
Santee r v 158
Santiago t v 451
Santorini i vi 168
Santen t vii 233
Santos t v 534
Saone r viii 166
Saone et Loire dep viii 370
Saragossa t viii 78
Sarakina i vi 170
Saransk t vi 560
Sarapul t vi 437
Saratow pr vi 429
Saratow t vi 429
Sardinia i vii 648
Sarepta t vi 429
Sari t ii 264
Sark i viii 678
Sarlat t viii 271
Sarospatak t vi 312
Sarralbe t viii 402
Sarre Louis t vii 253
Sarrebruck t vii 253
Sarrebourg t vii 252
Sarzeau t viii 292
Sarreguemines t viii 402
Sartene t viii 202
Sarthe dep viii 306
Saschaschawan r v 75
Sassari t vii 650
Sassenage t viii 216
Sastmola t vi 491
Satarah t iii 172
Satalia t ii 80
Sat choo t ii 477
Saterland t vii 195
Sauken t vi 523
Saumur t viii 285
Saulieu t viii 375

Sauxillanges t viii 347
Save r viii 165
Savenay t viii 291
Saverne t viii 400
Savoo i iii 524
Savoy pr vii 639
Sawar t vi 311
Sayaman m ii 391
Saxe Altemburg pr vii 284
Saxe Coburg Gotha pr vii 284
Saxe Meiningen pr vii 284
Saxe Weimar pr vii 280
Saxony kingd vii 267
Scalloway t viii 771
Scamander r ii 68
Scanderoon t ii 135
Scarborough t viii 724
Sceaux t viii 458
Schaffhausen canton viii 569
Scela pr iv 317
Scharnitz t vii 517
Scheldt r viii 169
Schemnitz t vi 308
Scheppenstadt t vii 318
Schiermonnick Oog i viii 648
Schirwan pr ii 58
Schlangenberg t ii 438
Schneeberg m vii 505
Schoraban t ii 37
Schutt t vi 307
Schwabach t vii 395
Schwatz t vii 518
Schwitz t vii 574
Schwartzburg Rudolstadt pr vii 308
Schwelm t vii 227
Schwerin Gr Dutchy vii 188
Schwerin t vii 188
Schwedt t vii 105
Schweidnitz t vii 79
Scilly i viii 692
Scio i ii 85
Scodra t vi 186
Scopelo i vi 170
Scotland viii 748
Scutari t ii 74
Scyros i vi 170
Sebastia t ii 78
Sebastian St t viii 69
Sebenico t vi 345
Sedan t viii 427
Seez t viii 460
Segalissus t ii 80
Seger pr ii 212
Segesta t vii 742
Seghalien r ii 490
Seghalien i ii 515
Seghalien str ii 509
Sego t iv 250
Segorba t viii 87
Segovia t viii 75
Segre r viii 10
Segré t viii 286
Seguenza t viii 89
Seihoun r ii 67
Seille t viii 412
Seine dep viii 447
Seine r viii 167
Seine et Oise dep viii 439
Seistan pr ii 276
Seleucia m ii 118
Seltz t viii 400
Selin t ii 477
Selinginsk t ii 441
Selinginskoi l ii 400
Selinga r ii 397
Selkirk t viii 756
Semipalotnoi pr ii 437
Semlin t vi 333
Sempach t vii 573
Sendomir t vi 668
Seneca l v 178
Senegal r iv 208
Senegambia pr iv 205
Senlis t viii 436
Sennaar pr iv 120
Sennaar t iv 121
Senney t ii 256
Senonches t viii 317
Sens t viii 378
Septmoncel t viii 389
Serajevo t vi 212
Serampoor t iii 108
Seres t vi 157
Sergippe pr v 541
Serinagur t iii 126
Seringapatam cit iii 197
Serouge t iii 77
Serpoukoff t vi 553
Serracoolet pr iv 218

Servia pr vi 216
Servia t vi 159
Se tchou fou t ii 588
Se tchuen pr ii 587
Setubal t viii 46
Severac le Chateau t viii 268
Severn r viii 680
Seville cit viii 107
Sevres t viii 443
Seychelles i iv 420
Seyde t ii 137
Sezanne t viii 422
Shabat t ii 377
Shabran t ii 59
Sha Meran t ii 109
Shamo des ii 6
Shammar m ii 206
Shanka t ii 377
Shan si pr ii 585
Shannon r viii 685
Shan ton pr ii 572
Shahak m ii 193
Shat el Arab r ii 120
Shapala l v 283
Sheffield t viii 724
Shekawutties pr iii 74
Shembigewm t iii 341
Shrewsbury t viii 740
Shropshire viii 740
Shehel minar cit ii 269
Shelburne t v 138
Shen si pr ii 586
Shetland i viii 770
Shillook pr iv 259
Shiraz cit ii 266
Siberia pr ii 387
Siam pr iii 382
Sibir t ii 432
Sibun r v 349
Sierra de Mimbre m v 277
Sierra Leone t iv 227
Siedlec t vi 670
Sierck t viii 403
Sienna t vii 665
Sigmaringen t vii 357
Sicily i vii 598, 728
Sidon t ii 137
Siegen t vii 228
Sihon r ii 363
Sikkim pr iii 133
Silhet pr iii 118
Silesia pr vii 60
Simonsthurm t vi 325
Simbirsk t vi 430
Simplon m vii 642
Simois r ii 68
Sinai m ii 200
Sin pr iv 222
Sincapore i iii 443
Sind pr ii 351
Sinde pr iii 56
Sindjar m ii 113
Si ngan fou t ii 586
Sinope t ii 74
Sion t vii 579
Sioo i iii 503
Siphante i vi 169
Sireh pr iv 132
Sis t ii 80
Sisteron t viii 206
Sithanak i v 54
Siwah pr iv 173
Siwas t ii 78
Skalholt t v 105
Skiddaw m viii 728
Skeneateles l v 178
Skiathos i vi 170
Skye i viii 768
Slave l v 74
Slave coast iv 235
Slavonia pr vi 326
Sleswick t viii 591
Sligo t viii 781
Slonium t vi 616
Slobdosk t vi 437
Slobajat t vi 240
Sluck t vi 616
Smalcalden t vii 295
Smedreno t vi 219
Smolensko pr vi 547
Smolensko t vi 547
Smyrna t ii 82
Society i iii 630
Soconusco pr v 347
Socor pr ii 477
Socotora i iv 418
Soest t vii 226
Sofala pr iv 397
Soga pr ii 378
Sogno pr iv 313

Soissons t viii 432
Soleure t vii 572
Solingen t vii 236
Soliman m ii 326
Solikamsk t vi 440
Solomon's i iii 596
Solowetskoy l vi 455
Solimoens r v 358
Solola t v 348
Solor i iii 524
Solsona t viii 81
Solway Frith viii 749
Somersetshire viii 695
Somme dep viii 470
Somme r viii 169
Sonderbourg i viii 592
Songaria pr ii 474
Sonora pr v 330
Sonderhausen t vii 309
Soodan l iv 251
Sootchukalé t ii 42
Soo tchoo foo t ii 574
Soonda pr iii 203
Soondoor t iii 193
Sonnenberg t vii 285
Sophene pr ii 111
Sorell r v 117
Soria t viii 75
Soroka t vi 378
Sos t viii 78
Souillac t viii 270
Soultz sous Forets t viii 400
Sousistan pr ii 266
Southampton t viii 699
Souvigny t viii 326
Spa t viii 634
Spain viii 56
Spalato t vi 335
Spanish Town, Jam. v 581
Sparta t ii 80
Spessart r vii 361
Spey r viii 680
Spezzia i vi 170
Spires t vii 402
Spitzbergen i v 108
Spoleto t vii 690
Sporades i vi 170
Stade t vii 217
Stad Hagen t vii 307
Stahlberg t vii 228
Stalimene i vi 171
Stafford t viii 739
Staffordshire viii 739
Stagno t vi 338
Stampalia i vi 168
Stargard t vii 116
Stanco i ii 87
Stannovoi m ii 392
Stein t vii 506
Steinfurth t vii 225
Stein am Auger t vi 325
Steinhundermen l vii 205
Steenkerke t viii 624
Steege t viii 590
Stenay t viii 406
Stendal t vii 134
Steppes ii 393
Stettin pr vii 114
Stettin t vii 115
Sterzing t vii 518
Steyer t vii 507
Stirling t viii 762
Stockton t viii 725
Stollberg t vii 128
Stolpe t vii 117
Stralsund t vii 113
Strany t vii 478
Strasburg t viii 397
Straubing t vii 386
Strelitz Gr D vii 187
Strehlen t vii 79
Stridova t vi 325
Strumitza t vi 157
Strymon r vi 155
Stuhl Weissembourg t vi 325
Studianka t vi 616
Stuttgart t vii 325
Styria Dutchy vii 519
Suakem t iv 149
Suchitepec t v 348
Suczawa t vi 692
Suez t iv 93
Suffolk co viii 717
Suhl t vii 254
Sulphur t vi 426
Sultanieh t ii 254
Sumatra i iii 426
Sumbawa i iii 525
Sumi t vi 575
Sundeep i iii 123

Sunderland t viii 725
Superior l v 115
Surat cit iii 68
Surrey co viii 712
Surgoot pr ii 433
Sutherland co viii 769
Surinam r v 544
Surinam pr v 561
Sursee t vii 573
Surmineh t ii 72
Susquehanna r v 159
Susa t ii 265
Sussex co viii 700
Sutledge r iii 17, 123
Suwalki t vi 671
Sveaborg t vi 489
Svendborg t viii 590
Swan r iii 560
Swanza t viii 745
Sweinfurth t vii 397
Switzerland vii 556
Swungir r vi 555
Sybaris t vii 697
Sydney t iii 538
Syene t iv 89
Sylt i viii 592
Syr r ii 362
Syra i vi 170
Syracuse t vii 737
Syria pr ii 120
Sympheropol t vi 391
Szarygrod t vi 578
Szarvas t vi 317
Szathmar t vi 313
Szent Goth t vi 325
Szent Morton t vi 324
Szijeth t vi 313

Tabaraya t ii 148
Tabasco pr v 343
Tabasseran t ii 59
Taberistan pr ii 264
Table Bay iv 344
Tabor m ii 148
Tabriz t ii 256
Tacna t v 427
Taez t ii 216
Tafilet t iv 190
Taganrok t vi 386
Tagliamento r vii 588
Tagus r viii 7
Tai Hoo l ii 557
Tai Ouan t ii 577
Tai yuen fou t ii 585
Tain t viii 769
Tajuana r viii 7
Talca t v 452
Taliabo i iii 513
Tam r viii 714
Tama r vi 458
Taman i ii 43
Tamar r viii 693
Tamega r viii 9
Tampico t v 343
Tangier t iv 189
Taormina t vii 733
Tanaga i v 55
Tanaro r vii 587
Tanaxima i ii 542
Tangoot pr ii 477
Tanjore pr iii 185
Tanna i iii 590
Tambof pr vi 560
Tambof t vi 561
Taos t v 326
Tarabasan t ii 72
Tarascon t viii 210
Tarare t viii 361
Tarbes t viii 248
Tarento t vii 719
Targowiez t vi 678
Taripa t viii 112
Tarija t v 432
Tarku t ii 58
Tarma pr v 428
Tarn dep viii 237
Tarn r viii 166
Tarn et Garrone dep viii 264
Tarnow t vi 684
Taroot t ii 210
Taro r vii 587
Tarazona t viii 77
Tarragona t viii 84
Tarsus t ii 80
Tartary pr ii 357
Tartas t viii 253
Tasch Kouprou t ii 74
Taskent t ii 371
Tata t vi 324
Tatra m vi 279

Tatta t iii 56
Taurus m ii 5 64
Tavolara i vii 609
Tavastland pr vi 488
Tavignano t viii 202
Tavira t viii 48
Tazla l ii 69
Tchaulan pr ii 146
Tchany l ii 398
Tcheldir m ii 54
Tche Kiang pr ii 575
Tcheloksary t vi 431
Tcherkask t vi 403
Tcherkassy t vi 577
Tchernigoff pr vi 577
Tching kiang fou t ii 590
Tching tou fou t ii 587
Tchoo r ii 558
Tchougoniew t vi 575
Tchoulym pr ii 437
Tchufut Kali t vi 392
Teachi i vi 172
Tedzen r ii 237
Teflis t ii 35
Teguisa t iv 469
Tehran t ii 253
Tehuantepec t v 344
Teith r viii 767
Tejuco t v 539
Tekiri Dagh m vi 152
Telegul l ii 13
Telesme t ii 236
Tellicherry t iii 209
Telemsen t iv 184
Temeswar t vi 317
Tempe vale vi 125
Tensif r iv 188
Tenas i vi 170
Tenedos i ii 85
Teneriffe i iv 470
Tengalle t iii 253
Tennessee st v 199
Tepelen t vi 183
Tequendama v 397
Terceira i iv 489
Tergowischti t vi 239
Terano t vii 716
Terkiri l ii 619
Ternati i iii 511
Teruel t viii 77
Terracina t vii 705
Terra del Fuego i v 481
Terra del Spirito Santo i iii 593
Terra Firma pr v 380
Terra di Bari pr vii 718
Terra di Otranto pr vii 718
Teruel t viii 77
Teschen t vii 481
Tesino pr vii 579
Tetuan t iv 189
Texel i viii 649
Texas pr v 332
Tezcuco l v 342
Thames r viii 680
Thasos i vi 170
Thebaid pr iv 92
Thebes Egypt cit iv 83
Thebes Gr vi 162
Theiss r vi 287
Theodo t vi 340
Theresienstadt t vi 321
Thermia i vi 169
Thermisia i vii 604
Thessaly pr vi 160
Thiers t viii 354
Thibet pr ii 614
Thionville t viii 402
Thorn t vii 24
Thouars t viii 483
Thuringer Wald m vii 38
Thurgau pr vii 569
Thurso t viii 769
Thyatira pr ii 84
Tiber r vii 588
Tidore i iii 512
Tietar r viii 7
Tifseh t iv 185
Tigre pr iii 103
Tigris r ii 101
Tilenina l vi 557
Tilsit t vii 20
Timor i iii 521
Timor Laot i iii 521
Timpanogos l v 322
Tinnevelly pr iii 190
Tinian i iii 618
Ting fou kien t ii 585
Tioomen pr ii 434
Tipevah pr iii 120

Tirey i viii 679
Titicaca l v 362, 430
Titul t vi 321
Tivoli t vii 688
Tobago i v 596
Tobol r ii 396
Tobolsk pr ii 431
Tobolsk t ii 432
Tocantins r v 358
Tocat t ii 73
Tocroor t iv 255
Tœplitz t vii 465
Tokay t vi 312
Toledo pr viii 98
Toledo t viii 98
Tololothan r v 282
Tolosa t viii 69
Tomassew t vi 670
Tombuctoo cit iv 255
Tomsk pr ii 436
Tomsk t ii 437
Tonala t v 333
Tongataboo i iii 623
Tongres t viii 632
Tong ting hoo l ii 557
Tonneins t viii 260
Tonnere t viii 380
Tonquin pr iii 367
Topayos r v 358
Torcello i vii 365
Tordesillas t viii 73
Torgau t vii 123
Torjok t vi 548
Tormes r viii 9
Torna pr vi 311
Tornea r vi 457
Toro t viii 73
Tortosa t viii 85
Tortola i v 587
Totma t vi 449
Toula pr vi 562
Toula t vi 563
Toulon t viii 204
Toulouse t viii 240
Toumaco i iii 622
Tournay t viii 624
Tournavos t vi 160
Tournus t viii 371
Tours t viii 311
Traboli t ii 72
Trachea pr ii 80
Tranquebar t iii 187
Trani t vii 718
Transylvania pr vi 340
Trapani t vii 742
Trarsas pr iv 199
Tras os Montes pr viii 47
Traste t vi 340
Traunsdorf t vii 240
Travancore pr iii 212
Trawnick t vi 212
Trebia r vii 587
Trebinitza r vi 206
Trebitsch t vii 479
Trebisond t ii 72
Trent t vii 518
Tresco i viii 692
Trepton t vii 116
Treviso t vii 630
Trevoux t viii 369
Treves t vii 249
Trianon t viii 444
Tribunia t vi 306
Trichendore pr iii 191
Trichinopoly pr iii 187
Trieste t vii 534
Trincomalee t iii 254
Tripoli Syria t ii 137
Tripoli Barb t iv 178
Trivanderam t iii 214
Trivicary t iii 183
Tristan da Cunha i iv 460
Triste Gulf v 360
Trinidad i v 597
Trinidad Cuba t v 579
Tronganon t iii 392
Trophonius cav vi 131
Troppau t vii 481
Troy t ii 84
Troyes t viii 419
Trujilo t viii 101
Truro t viii 692
Truxillo Hond t v 349
Truxillo Ven t v 385
Tschartova Gorodeschte t vi 437
Tschinval t ii 35
Tshasahntala plain ii 474
Tsiamaya t iii 365
Tsi nan foo t ii 572

Tsiompa pr iii 379
Tsusima i ii 528
Tubna t iv 185
Tubingen t vii 337
Tucuman pr v 454
Tudela t viii 68
Tulcar t iv 437
Tuloma r vi 458
Tulle t viii 338
Tullum t viii 415
Tumen r ii 497
Tunguska r ii 396
Tunis pr iv 180
Tunis t iv 181
Tuyu pr v 474
Tuptee r iii 23
Tusculum t vii 688
Tuscany G r D vii 658
Tusis t vii 580
Turcoing t viii 478
Turcomania pr ii 372
Turensk pr ii 433
Turkestan pr ii 370
Turkey vi 145
Turnhout t viii 619
Turin cit vii 643
Turnif i v 345
Turopolia pr vi 333
Tver pr vi 548
Tver t vi 548
Tyre t ii 137
Tyrnau t vi 307
Tyrol pr vii 510

Ubedah t viii 104
Ucayal r v 356
Uddevalla t viii 553
Udinsk pr ii 440
Udoria pr vi 450
Uffeln t vii 306
Uglitsch t vi 556
Uist i viii 683
Ui Hely t vi 312
Ula Tau r ii 362
Uleaborg t vi 493
Ulm t vii 337
Ulster pr viii 780
Uman t vi 577
Unterwald pr vii 575
Umea r viii 538
Umea t viii 544
Ummerapoor cit iii 348
Unieh t iii 72
Upper Garonne dep viii 239
Upper Loire dep viii 226
Upper Rhine dep viii 394
Upper Saone dep viii 380
Upper Vienne dep viii 334
Upsal t viii 546
Uraguay pr v 359
Ural m ii 388
Ural, Western m vi 439
Urgel t viii 80
Urghenz t ii 277
Urbino t vii 691
Uri canton vii 575
Urmia l ii 236
Urmia t iii 12
Uruguay p v 461
Usedom i vii 113
Uskub t vi 158
Ussitza t vi 319
Ustica i vii 749
Utrera t viii 109
Utica t v 178
Utrecht t viii 647
Uzbeks pr ii 380
Uzes t viii 231

Vacz t vi 306
Vakvak pr iv 401
Valais pr vii 578
Valadia t iv 190
Valdivia t v 452
Valencay t viii 333
Valence t viii 213
Valencia pr Sp. viii 85
Valencia cit Sp. viii 87
Valencia l Am. v 382
Valencia t Am. v 385
Valladolid t Sp. viii 74
Valladolid t Am. v 334
Valognes t viii 463
Valenciennes t viii 476
Vannes t viii 291
Valparaiso t v 450
Van l ii 103
Van t ii 104
Van Diemen's Land iii 455
Var dep viii 202

Varinas t v 385
Varna t vi 229
Vasarhely t vi 317
Vash pr ii 379
Vascongades pr viii 68
Vassy t viii 417
Vathi t ii 85
Vaucluse dep viii 210
Vaucouleurs t viii 407
Vaud pays vii 575
Veglia i vi 335
Vellore t iii 181
Vendee pr viii 279
Vendome t viii 315
Venezuela pr v 380
Venice cit vii 631
Venloo t viii 633
Vera Cruz t v 343
Vera Paz t v 349
Veragua pr v 354
Veraia t vii 553
Verdun t viii 406
Vermanton t viii 376
Vermont st v 173
Vermejo r v 359
Vernon t viii 457
Verona t viii 628
Versailles t viii 443
Verulam t viii 716
Verviers t viii 634
Vesoul t viii 382
Vesprim t vi 335
Vesuvius m vii 597
Vevay t vii 576
Viborg t viii 591
Vic t viii 412
Vic en Bigorre t viii 248
Vic en Carladez t viii 341
Vichy t viii 327
Vicenza t vii 630
Vienna cit vii 494
Vienne r viii 167
Vienne t viii 218
Vienne dep viii 283
Vierzon t viii 332
Vigten i viii 534
Vigan t viii 234
Vilaine r iv 170
Villa da Orta t iv 491
Villa Bou t v 540
Villa Rica t v 538
Villa Nova de Portimas t viii 48
Ville Franche t viii 362
Villemar t viii 239
Villeneuve d'Agen t viii 260
Villeneuve de Berg t viii 244
Vilvorde t viii 631
Vincennes t Fr. viii 456
Vincennes t U. S. v 202
Vindhia m iii 11
Vire t viii 469
Virgin i v 587
Virgin Gorda i v 587
Virginia st v 190
Viseu t viii 46
Vistula r vii 14, 651
Vitepsk t vii 615
Vitré t viii 304
Vittoria t viii 69
Vitry le François t viii 422
Vitry le Brulé t viii 421
Vizelle t viii 215
Vizigapatam pr iii 153
Vodina t vi 159
Voitzberg t vii 526
Volhynia pr vii 579
Volo Gulf vi 160
Volterra t vii 667
Volvic t viii 353
Vormen Elv viii 523
Vosges dep viii 408
Vou tchang fou cit ii 534
Vou ting fou cit ii 590
Vouziers t viii 427

Waal r viii 610
Wagram t vii 506
Waijoo i iii 610
Wakefield t viii 724
Walcheren i viii 662
Waldeck pr vii 318
Wales pr viii 688, 742
Wallachia pr vi 229
Wallengin t vii 259
Wallin i vii 113
Walney i viii 730
Wangara pr iv 263
Wantage t viii 712
Warwick t viii 738

Warwickshire	viii	738
Warasdin t	vi	331
Ware t	viii	716
Waree pr	iv	238
Warendorf t	vii	225
Warnitza t	vi	379
Wartha r	vi	652
Warnsdorf t	vii	465
Warlitz t	vii	314
Warree pr	iii	170
Warsaw cit	vi	664
Wasa pr	vi	492
Wash bay	viii	720
Washington cit	v	192
Waterford t	viii	787
Waterloo t	viii	627
Waveney t	viii	719
Wecht r	viii	640
Wehlau t	vii	20
Weichsel t	vii	482
Weisluka m	ii	374
Weisselthurm t	vii	246
Weissenfels t	vii	124
Weiskirschen t	vii	480
Weisbaden t	vii	322
Weismar t	vii	281
Weissenbourg t	viii	400
Weilburg t	vii	322
Weimar t	vii	281
Wells t	viii	695
Wenden t	vi	521
Wener l	viii	538
Wenersberg t	viii	552
Werbitz t	vi	553
Werders i	vii	23
Werningerode t	vii	132
Wersitz t	vi	317
Wertheim t	vii	348
Wert t	viii	633
Werz l	vi	517
Weser r	vii	45
Wesel t	vii	232
Western Territory	v	207
Westmoreland co	viii	729
Westphalia pr	vii	221
Wetzlar t	vii	254
Wetter l	viii	538
Wettin t	vii	127
Whitby t	viii	724
White Horse Vale	viii	703
White Mountains	v	152
White Sea	vi	5
Whittlesea Mere	viii	737
Whittlebury t	viii	736
Whitsuntide i	iii	592
Wiaisma t	vi	548
Wiaitko t	vi	436
Wichwood t	viii	704
Wick t	viii	769
Wielicza mines	vi	681
Wieringen i	viii	648
Wigton t	viii	748
Wight i	viii	682
Willengen t	vii	353
Wildeshausen t	vii	195
Williams Ord t	viii	649
Williamstadt t	v	599
Wilna t	vi	611
Wilooi r	ii	397
Wiltshire	viii	698
Winandermere l	viii	729
Winchester t	viii	699
Windsor t Eng.	viii	712
Windsor t N. Hol.	iv	539
Windau r	vi	517
Winipeg l	v	75
Wirtemberg kingd	vii	325
Wisconsin r	v	157
Wisby t	viii	555
Witepsk pr	vi	544
Witney t	viii	714
Wittemberg pr	vii	122
Wladimir pr	vi	554
Wodzimierz t	vi	579
Wogara pr	iv	132
Wohlau t	vii	79
Wolverhampton t	viii	739
Wolborz t	vi	667
Wolmar t	vi	521
Wolfenbuttel pr	vii	318
Wolgast t	vii	114
Wolga r	vi	548
Wologda t	vi	447
Woodstock t	viii	714
Woolwich t	viii	702
Worengen t	vii	239
Woronetsch pr	vi	568
Woronetsch t	vi	568
Worstead t	viii	720
Worms t	vii	302

Worcester t viii 741
Worcestershire viii 740
Wrath cape viii 685
Wrottesley t viii 739
Wurtzburg t vii 396

Xacurutina r v 511
Xalapa t v 343
Xalon r viii 10
Xarayes l v 359
Xatina t viii 89
Xeres t viii 110
Xicona t viii 88
Xingu r v 358
Xou pr iv 134

Y, Gulf viii 640
Yakootsk pr ii 443
Yakootsk t ii 443
Yaloo r ii 497
Yalon kiang r ii 556
Yalutorowsk pr ii 434
Yang tcheou fou t ii 574
Yang tse kiang r ii 556
Yarkand pr ii 470
Yare r viii 699
Yarmouth t viii 719
Yemana t ii 205
Yemen pr ii 212
Yendeen t ii 492
Yenisei r ii 396
Yen ping fou t ii 576
Yerkend l ii 14
Yeu i viii 173
Yon r ii 556
Yonne r viii 168
York cit Eng viii 722
York t Can. v 126
Yorkshire viii 722
Youna r v 584
Youghall t viii 787
Ypres t viii 623
Yssel r viii 639
Yssengeaux t viii 229
Yucatan pr v 345
Yuen r ii 556
Yun nan pr ii 589
Yun nan fou t ii 590
Yupura r v 357
Yutay r v 357

Zaab r ii 108
Zab pr iv 185
Zacatecas pr v 352
Zacatlan t v 352
Zacatula r v 282
Zacatula pr v 282
Zagora pr vi 151
Zagora t vi 160
Zagrus m ii 237
Zadis t v 37
Zafra t viii 102
Zahara des iv 196
Zaire r iv 292
Zambeze r iv 397
Zamora t viii 73
Zangai m ii 6
Zanguebar pr iv 403
Zanzibar i iv 405
Zante i vi 173
Zara t vi 335
Zea i vi 169
Zebid t ii 217
Zebee r iv 414
Zeduny t vii 32
Zeitz t vii 128
Zell t vii 216
Zerbst t vii 314
Zere l ii 13
Zereh l ii 236
Zeulenrode t viii 310
Zezere r viii 7
Zierl t vii 518
Zilé t ii 73
Zinghan t ii 254
Zittau t vii 278
Znaim t vii 478
Zoffingen t vii 570
Zug canton vii 573
Zuja r viii 8
Zula i iii 513
Zullichau t vii 91
Zulpic t vi 239
Zurich t vii 570
Zutphen t viii 646
Zuyder Zee viii 641
Zwool t viii 645
Zwornick t vi 213

Rc.

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